WELFARE *in* REVIEW

UBAN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
MILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF AGING · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUE
HILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF AGINC
FFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT · CUB
UBAN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
MILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF AGING · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUE
HILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF FAMILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF AGINC
FFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT · CUB
UBAN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF · CHILDREN'S BUREAU · BUREAU OF
MILY SERVICES · OFFICE OF AGING · OFFICE OF JUVENILE DELINQUE

DOCUMENTS
JUL 31 1965
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

JUNE
1965
Vol 3-No 6

U. S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND
WELFARE

Welfare
Administration

U. S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND WELFARE

Welfare Administration

Children's
Bureau

Bureau of Family
Services

Office of Aging

Office of Juvenile
Delinquency and
Youth Development

Cuban Refugee
Program Staff

WELFARE in REVIEW

Welfare in Review is the official monthly publication of the Welfare Administration. Statements in Review articles do not necessarily reflect official policies of the Welfare Administration.

Welfare in Review is prepared in the Division of Research, Office of the Commissioner, Welfare Administration. Suggestions or comments should be addressed to the Editor, Welfare in Review, Welfare Administration, 330 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington, D. C. 20201.

Contents of the publication are not copyrighted; any items may be reprinted but citation of Welfare in Review as the source is requested.

Use of funds for printing this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget July 22, 1963.

Welfare in Review is for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price $3.00 per year; $1 additional for foreign mailing. 35 cents per single copy.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

ANTHONY J. CELEBREZZE, Secretary

Welfare Administration

ELLEN WINSTON, Commissioner

JOSEPH H. MEYERS, Deputy Commissioner

GENEVIEVE W. CARTER, Director
Division of Research

Volume 3 JUNE 1965 Number 6

In This Issue

Page

Training Children in Low-Income Families for School 1
Oliver C. Moles, Jr.

Problems and Promise in the Use of Indigenous Personnel 12
Jack Otis

Projects Aided Under the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program 23

Cooperative Research and Demonstration Reports 20

Notes 19

Publications of Interest 28

Program and Operating Statistics 29

Training Children in Low-Income Families for School

OLIVER C. MOLES, Jr.*

THE POOR EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE of children in low-income families has recently received much attention. Children from poor families have been found to be more often retarded in subject matter comprehension and in grade level than their better-off counterparts. More of them eventually drop out of school.[1] The possible lifetime consequences of such poor educational performance are clear in light of the increasing demand for workers with a high level of education and declining opportunities for the less educated.

Special problems in the family and community prevent poor children from making the best use of school--lack of adequate food and clothing, lack of supervision and intellectually stimulating activities, as well as the negative influence of older dropouts and ill-equipped schools. In the continuing attack on poverty, public welfare agencies throughout the country offer a valuable means of reaching some of the educational problems of economically marginal or dependent families. This becomes clearer as more is learned about the child-rearing practices of low-income families[2] and the effects of deprivation on the child.[3]

Social workers and educators draw on a common body of knowledge about children in low-income families. The educator views the child's plight as it affects his ability to learn, and the social worker views it in terms of social disabilities and social adjustment. In so doing, the social worker must take into account the role of educational competence in the child's overall adjustment, and therefore he must grapple with many of the same problems the educator faces. Increased collaboration between welfare agencies, the schools, and other family-serving agencies should contribute a great deal to the promotion of the educational achievement of poor children. Research will help to specify how better welfare services and collaboration can be attained.

*Division of Research, Welfare Administration.

For references, see end of article.

SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

Among the most deprived of our population are those who receive aid to families with dependent children. A comparison of the academic performance of AFDC children and all children in the United States disclosed that from a very similar level of achievement in their early school years the groups gradually diverged until at age 15 and above the AFDC children were a semester or more behind children throughout the nation in median grade placement.[4] Furthermore, at each age a greater proportion of AFDC children were overage for their school grade; one-quarter or more of them were overage by age 14 and above. Many overage pupils have failed a semester or more, and a number of studies demonstrate that children who have failed are more likely to drop out of school.[1,5] Thus it is not surprising to find that only 75 percent of AFDC children aged 14 to 17

were enrolled in school in early 1961. This contrasts with a 91 percent nationwide enrollment for all children in this age group.[6]

The broader category of all low-income families, including both economically dependent and independent households, presents a similar picture. In Detroit, elementary school children in the lowest-income neighborhoods scored anywhere from half a year to over a year below the national average on a standardized achievement test.[7] In a central Harlem area of New York City, 30 percent of the third graders and over 80 percent of the sixth graders were below their grade level in reading comprehension.[8] Poorer performance among older children was also noticed in Detroit.

After a detailed review of many studies which followed the academic performance of children through their school careers, one investigator[9] concluded that, from a statistical standpoint, by the age of nine (about the third grade) at least half of the general achievement pattern for age 18 is already developed, and by age 13 over three-quarters of the pattern is developed.* He concluded that the home environment before children enter school and during the elementary school years affects their eventual achievement level in important ways. Others have examined the impact of the school environment and placed heavy emphasis on poorer facilities and teachers in low-income areas.[7,8,10] Each environment plays a part in children's intellectual growth, but exactly how much of a part each plays remains a moot question.

At the high school level, the estimated dropout rate for the nation in 1960, based on all 16- and 17-year-olds not attending school, was higher for low-income families (income under $3,000) than for any other income group. This was true in almost all comparisons even when factors such as sex, race, parents' education, and rural-urban residence--factors which often produce substantial differences in school achievement--were taken into account.[11] Thus, independent of the effects of such factors, families receiving less than $3,000 a year had more children who became dropouts.

To go a step further, another recent national study[12] indicates that if a youth drops out, his chances of finding employment are considerably poorer than the chances of high school graduates. For those who did find work, almost half (46 percent) became relatively low-paid laborers. By contrast, only 27 percent of the most recent high school graduates who did not go to college were working as laborers. Even after being out of school for a year or two almost as many of the dropouts (42 percent) still had the same kind of job, an indication that most were apparently not able to advance quickly to better jobs.

The prospects for underachievers who stay in school are not bright, either. Even assuming that funds are available, their chances for being admitted to college are reduced and with this the opportunity to obtain valuable skills and earn higher wages in the future. Clearly, many of the poor never reach their full potential because of educational retardation. Our society also is the loser for lack of their full productive contribution.

SOME DIMENSIONS OF THE CHILD'S WORLD

Many conditions contribute to the educational plight of poor children--ill health, cultural deprivation, inadequate home preparation for school, inadequate school facilities, less talented teachers, racial discrimination, diversion from school achievement by peer pressures, to mention just a few. The following discussion focuses on selected characteristics of poor children which affect their edu-

*Statistical explanations here and later refer to the size of the relationship between two variables as expressed by a correlation coefficient. Thus a correlation of .75 between general achievement test scores at ages 9 and 18 would mean that at least half of the achievement pattern, or variation, in age 18 scores is "explained" by the age 9 scores (.75 x .75 = .56). Correlations can vary from 1.00 (a perfect direct relationship) to -1.00 (a perfect inverse relationship).

cational achievement and the role of parents in molding these characteristics. The dimensions of the child's world which are of concern here are certain intellectual skills, motivation to succeed, and opportunities for studying in the home.

Intellectual Skills

Intellectual skills pertain to the capacity for acquiring and retaining knowledge, expressed in such forms as level of intelligence, problem-solving ability, creativity, verbal ability, and cognitive style. Among the variety of intellectual skills, none has received more attention than general intelligence. The effect on achievement in school subjects is generally recognized, although much debate continues over the relative contribution of heredity and environment to intelligence[13] and over how sound an estimate of one's intellectual ability can be obtained from intelligence tests.[7,14] Although the evidence is not all in agreement, most studies find that children who have low tested intelligence are more likely to drop out of school than brighter students.[1,5] Over the long term, low intelligence undoubtedly contributes to academic failure at all grade levels and to a reduced attraction to school after such failure. But what does low intelligence have to do with the low-income family?

In the late 1940's a very extensive test of the relationship between intelligence and socioeconomic status revealed consistently positive correlations (.20 to .43) between nine different intelligence tests and the social class membership of the family.[15] A large number of white children aged 9-10 and 13-14 years were tested. More recent studies make essentially the same point.[7,8]

What is not so apparent is the process at work in these families which leads to differences in intelligence level. A recent study throws some new light on this question.[16] Families of fifth graders from different social classes were rated on a number of kinds of interaction or "processes" going on between parents and children. These included parental emphasis on achievement motivation, emphasis on language development, and provisions for general learning. Important variables in each area, respectively, were the nature of intellectual expectations for the child, opportunities provided for enlarging his vocabulary, and other opportunities provided for learning in the home. Each cluster of variables correlated more highly with I.Q. (.57 to .64) than did the social class variables--not surprisingly, since child-training practices should have more effect on children than the more remote measures of social class itself.

Deficiencies in each of the family "process" areas can be found among low-income families. Provisions for general learning in the form of good books, travel or even the usual household articles which impart aspects of the general American culture are restricted by inadequate income. In poverty-ridden households, family conversations tend to focus on the tangible and immediate. Goals to be achieved are necessarily scaled down, and with this narrowing of outlook come reduced expectations for children's achievement.

The net effect of the lower-class home environment has been characterized as a kind of "stimulus deprivation" in the sense of a less systematically ordered and more restricted variety of stimulation.[17] For example, adults are less competent sources of information and less inclined to encourage questions. And while there may be much noise nearby, a great deal of it is not meaningful to the child and actually promotes inattention on his part. Circumstances such as these serve to inhibit intellectual growth.

Even the style of language common to the lower working class is different. In contrast to the elaborate language structure of the middle class, theirs consists primarily of short, simple, often unfinished sentences. It is a language of implicit meaning based on commonly shared notions; because it does not convey nuances of meaning, it has been termed a "public" language.[18] Interaction between the lower-class child and

his usually middle-class teacher is greatly hampered by the child's inability to structure ideas as precisely as she expects him to. His training simply leaves him unable to comprehend the full meaning of what the teacher says.

The limited nature of lower-class language may originate in the disadvantaged position of the class itself. For those who must work with their hands and usually take orders from others, there is not much inducement for abstract thinking or nuances of speech. But their children pay the heavy price of isolation from the mainstream of American society. This affects their tested intelligence, among other ways, by limiting their ability to comprehend many intelligence tests.

Since verbal ability differs so much between the middle class and the lower working class, it has been suggested as the key to success on intelligence tests. One experiment to test this notion was conducted with sixth graders. Nonverbal tests of ability to conceptualize and to form analogies were used, yet middle-class children still performed better than lower-class pupils.[19] These tests were based on sections of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests. Even when only children with similar scores on the nonverbal tests were selected, again the middle-class students performed better on counterparts of the conceptualization and analogies tests which required more verbal ability. Since the middle-class children did better on the nonverbal test, one cannot say that verbal ability alone explains the difference in intelligence from one class to the other. Verbal ability does play some part, however, as seen in the differences in verbal test scores when only children of similar nonverbal ability were tested.

The intelligence test scores of low-status children seem to decline as they grow older. Comparing third and sixth graders in Harlem, the median measured I.Q. was four points lower for the older group.[8] A decrease in I.Q. was also noted between first and fifth grade samples among other lower-class Negro boys in New York City, although for white boys there was a slight increase. Other work with a great variety of intelligence test items demonstrated that, for white children aged 9-10, half the items favored middle-class children, and for children aged 13-14, about 85 percent of the items did so.[15] Since there are more verbal items in tests for older children, the deficit in linguistic ability that poor children have may especially inhibit their later test performance. The lack of verbal ability may also help to explain why more poor children are retarded in the upper grades, where such ability is more important.

Several kinds of efforts have been made to raise the I.Q. scores of poor children. Test questions have been rewritten so that the subject matter is more familiar to all children with the result that low-status children have performed better. The tests have been read aloud to minimize reading problems, also with some effect. Short-term practice sessions influence later performance, and the reward of a theater ticket for a good score has produced markedly better results on standard intelligence tests.[20]

In general, sustained programs appear to be needed in order to capitalize on these findings and promote continued growth in intelligence. One type of program is the nursery school. In a recent study even mentally retarded children benefited from nursery school experience, regardless of whether the children were living in an institution or in the community.[21] More importantly, their greater acceleration in intelligence test scores continued over a period of 3-5 years after the nursery school experience. This suggests that preschool programs can be effective for children with a wide range of initial ability.

At the school-age level, results are not so clearcut. Many experimental programs have only been started. Some are directed toward making the teacher more effective with her class through various kinds of inservice training. Others provide special school services to the most educationally disadvantaged, and still others operate outside of the regular school through summer classes and con-

tacts with families at home.[22,23] Most of the evaluations of these programs are still in progress. Evaluation is complicated by the variety of activities, often going on at once, which makes it difficult to isolate specific activities or practices associated with increases in measured intelligence. A developmental psychologist who has surveyed the influence of experience on intelligence summarizes the current situation in these terms: "We still lack firm evidence concerning the influence of an optimal learning environment on the intellectual development of culturally deprived elementary-school and adolescent children, especially those who have been subjected for many years to the frustration and demoralization of inappropriate school experience. This is an extremely urgent research problem that should engage our immediate attention."[24]

The Achievement Motive

Children who do not perform up to capacity, the underachievers, call attention to the need to study the motivations of poor children--their attitudes, goals, motives for action, and the means they use to attain educational goals. While many motives may influence academic performance, the need for achievement (often called need achievement), is selected for discussion here because of its obvious relevance and because a number of studies have been done on its causes and consequences. Need for achievement has been defined by McClelland, the psychologist who has studied it most, as "competition with a standard of excellence" or behavior guided by past and prospective satisfactions or dissatisfactions over achievement.[25] Speaking abstractly, the conditions producing need for achievement include an attractive goal, some risk concerning the possibility of attaining it, a sense of being responsible for success or failure, and knowledge of the results of one's effort.[26] Need for achievement is usually measured by scoring the content of stories written in response to a series of ambiguous pictures. Because most of the work on the achievement motive has been done with boys, we know much less about the need for achievement in girls; the following discussion does not apply to girls unless so specified.

Competition with a standard of excellence suggests competition for good grades in school. This was confirmed in a study of boys from urban high schools. Two-thirds of those rated high in need for achievement had a B average or better compared with one-third of those rated low.[27] With a slightly different technique similar results were obtained for a seventh grade sample of boys and girls.[28] Over half the variance in overall grade average was explained statistically by need for achievement scores (correlation of .75).

That need for achievement is not just another way to measure intelligence was demonstrated by holding constant the effects of intelligence.[25] The correlation between need for achievement and a test of performance was almost as high after the factor of intelligence was eliminated as a variable as before. (.44 vs. .48).

Given the relationship of need for achievement to school grades, the question arises whether this motive is more or less prevalent among the poor. Figures from a recent national sample[29] indicate that the lowest income category of adults had the smallest percentage of high scorers on need for achievement among both men and women. Likewise, those of each sex with the poorest education (grade school only) had the fewest high scorers. Strong social class differences also exist for high school students; lower-class boys had the lowest average scores on need for achievement of any group.[27] In a sample of children averaging 11 years of age, the same thing was true for six separate racial and ethnic groups.[30] Thus need for achievement has been found to vary by social class for adults, adolescents and younger children; the poor are less motivated by need for achievement than are the middle classes.

What is it about being poor that affects the need for achievement? First, we must understand how need for achievement is

learned and then note whatever similarity there is between these learning situations and the situations common to poor families.

McClelland has summarized and interpreted a series of studies concerning the sources of need for achievement.[31] One study of middle-class families showed that mothers of 8- to 10-year-old sons with high need for achievement expected them to display independence and mastery (achievement) at an earlier age than did mothers of sons with low need for achievement. Mastery was measured by asking them questions like when they expected a son to have learned "to be active and energetic in climbing, jumping and sports." The mothers of sons with high need for achievement placed fewer demands on them, but what few they did place they expected the boys to meet at an earlier age. On the other hand, the mothers of boys with low need for achievement imposed more restrictions and did not expect their sons to show independence and mastery as early.

Later work has underscored the relatively greater importance of achievement or mastery training in comparison with independence training in promoting need for achievement. In a study which included observation of the behavior of parents with their children, mothers and fathers of boys with high need for achievement set higher standards for them and rewarded good performance with more supporting comments than did parents of low-achieving boys.[32]

Differences in achievement values held by mothers in different social classes have also been examined. In one study, mothers in the lowest status had the lowest measured achievement orientation. This held true for each of six different ethnic groups: French-Canadian, Italian, Greek, Jewish, Negro, and white Protestant.[30] Looking at the lower class alone, however, McClelland found no relationship between achievement training and need for achievement. After reanalyzing some of the earlier data, he discovered that when mothers stress the son's looking after himself before they stress the mastering of tasks, the boy's need for achievement is lower than when achievement is stressed first. Four of six groups which emphasized self-care before achievement were of lower-class status, namely groups of French-Canadian, Italian, Greek, and Negro families.

McClelland concluded that early mastery training promotes high need for achievement only when it does not signify generalized restrictiveness, authoritarianism, or "rejection" by parents. Thus if a boy is expected to "make decisions for himself" at an early age, this may mean that the parents help him to become self-reliant and masterful or that they push him to take care of himself and not be a burden to the family. When it is the latter he will not develop a high need for achievement because the parents are not interested in his mastering tasks, only in his being out of the way. The optimum time for stressing achievement standards seems to lie between 6 and 8 years of age, not too early for the boy's ability and not too late for him to internalize the standards as his own. Meaningful differences in level of need for achievement have, however, been observed as early as 5 years of age.

An earlier emphasis on having children take care of themselves seems likely among lower-class families, especially urban lower-class families, for a number of reasons. Broken homes are more common, and in such homes, other things being equal, the mother must assume extra responsibilities and the children must do more for themselves. In the larger lower-class family also the parents have less time to help each child. Irregular employment and unusual working hours make it difficult for parents to develop a routine in the home and to help children at important times such as when they are getting ready for school. Finally, overcrowding forces children onto the streets to play without supervision at an early age. These kinds of conditions do not promote guided child training, let alone achievement training. Instead they force children to fend for themselves--exactly the kind of situation which McClelland found to produce low need for achievement. Negroes are especially

subject to these conditions, particularly the poor jobs, broken homes, and overcrowding. This may in turn help to account for the fact that Negro lower-class children have scored the lowest of all groups tested on need for achievement.[30] But the limited opportunities for advancement probably affect all low-income families to some extent, creating an atmosphere of defeat and alienation. In a study of Italian and Jewish families, the lower the socioeconomic status of the family, the lower were the fathers' achievement values. Their values were in turn directly related to the sons' level of need for achievement.[33]

The process of motivating the pupil to perform school work is sufficiently complex to necessitate some discussion of how need for achievement fits into the larger picture of overall achievement motivation. On games of skill it has been repeatedly observed that children with high need for achievement try more often to accomplish the moderately difficult task.[31] The low achievement children more often try the very easy or very hard tasks. Their successes come either with little satisfaction because the task is very easy or infrequently because the task is very difficult. Apparently a higher level of need for achievement accentuates the choice of moderately difficult tasks which provide a reasonable combination of success and satisfaction.[34] On the basis of their lower need for achievement, more lower-class children are likely to set unsatisfying standards for themselves, either aiming only to get by or to do better than they are able. In addition, other kinds of goals begin to attract many older youths, and such things as having a nice car or dating become more important than academic success. These changing goals are one source of the not surprising finding of many studies that dropouts place little value on education.[5]

Another source of differences in achievement-oriented activity is the extent to which test situations arouse need for achievement. In a comparison of working-class and middle-class seniors of both sexes in a midwestern city high school, tests of ability were administered to some who were offered money for doing well and to others who were not offered money. A failure situation was created for all students after taking the tests and need for achievement was immediately measured. For the middle-class students there was no difference in need for achievement when the reward was present or absent, but for the working-class students the presence of the reward was associated with the higher need for achievement scores. Working-class students who thought of themselves as being middle-class were not affected by the reward and behaved as the middle-class students did.[35] Thus working-class students who do not identify with the middle-class are likely to need additional incentives in the form of more tangible rewards before their need for achievement is fully aroused. Once it is aroused working-class students have almost as high need for achievement scores as middle-class students.

While the previous studies measured need for achievement under neutral conditions, this experiment suggests that, with proper incentives, scores on need for achievement and presumably the academic performance of lower-class youths can be raised, at least for a time. Similar effects of rewards were described for intelligence tests. How lasting the effects of such training might be is not yet known. The general assumption with need for achievement and other motives is that they are learned early in life and thereafter remain at a relatively constant level for most people. The above findings, however, suggest that situations can be created which will raise, perhaps for a sustained period of time, the motive level for educationally disadvantaged older children.

Opportunities for Studying at Home

The child's behavior is also shaped by the situation in which he finds himself. In this case the situational dimension is his opportunities for study and learning in his home. Parents have no direct influence over the child when he is at

school and must depend on whatever skills and motivation he has acquired, plus the classroom situation, to sustain his educational performance. But in the home parents exert much influence on the situation. Even for a child with high ability and motivation, disruptive family conditions may make study and learning difficult.

Some of the handicaps of poor parents, such as their lack of verbal ability and provisions for teaching children at home, continue to exist long after they have made their greatest impact on the child's motivation and abilities. These and other characteristics of low-income families act as continuing restraints against the child's use of his talents to best advantage. Even the well-motivated and skillful child from a low-income family still must contend with more limited home opportunities to practice what he is learning.

In many localities parents must buy school books and supplies for their children. On a low income this is not easy, and important supplies for studying, such as sufficient paper and pencils in the home for school work, may not be purchased. More important, various supplementary home learning tools such as dictionaries, educational games, and story books are beyond the reach of those who must be concerned first with subsistence.[36]

The size of the home is likely to impose further restraints on the opportunities to study that poor children have. In urban slums the problem of overcrowded living space is complicated by the tendency of families to share their homes with others when finances become tight.[37] Space in which children can study is scarce, and space in general is so crowded that children are apt to spend much of their time outside of the home; all this detracts from their studying.

Poor children are further handicapped in doing homework by their parents' lack of education. It is clear that poorly educated parents will have more difficulty helping their children with school work and guiding them in the use of educational resources in the community, especially in the high school years. As part of their general isolation from the rest of society, they join parent organizations less often.[7] Without voluntary school contacts by means of parent organizations and teacher conferences, low-income parents are less informed about school resources and home techniques to help their children.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRENT SERVICES

This is a period of experimentation on what can be done about lifting the educational level of families caught in the web of poverty. The urgency of the situation demands a broad scale attack. A variety of approaches are being developed on the basis of growing knowledge about the complexities of compensating for social deficiencies which interfere with learning and educational achievement. Development of social services in the community has been given strong impetus by Federal legislation of recent years, notably the 1962 Public Welfare Amendments to the Social Security Act and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Public welfare workers increasingly recognize problems beyond financial difficulties which impede successful participation in society and are seeking to organize appropriate services to help people overcome such barriers.

One important problem is portrayed by findings in the study, "The Blackboard Curtain,"[38] which shows that when parents were tested for educational achievement before enrollment in literacy classes, their average achievement level was 2-1/2 years below the average grade they had completed (8.0 years of school). In effect their unused skills had deteriorated or were perhaps never at the eighth grade level to start. In order to promote the training of parents in families receiving AFDC, the public welfare departments can enter into cooperative arrangements with other public agencies responsible for vocational and adult education. The importance of literacy pro-

grams to help those without functional ability to read and write goes beyond simply making the individual more productive; their benefits may reach into the following generation. Recently compiled national figures suggest that the breadwinner's education is even more important than family income in predicting who will drop out of school.[11] As better educated and more self-confident parents, they can do a much better job of stimulating the intellectual development of their children.

Keeping children in school is another objective of the caseworker. Material support in the form of decent school clothes, tennis shoes for gym classes, money for student activity tickets, carfare for school activities and other essentials for ordinary participation in school life are often beyond the limits of the allowed family budget. These are not trivial matters. School dropout studies have reported time and again that dropouts lack friends, feel rejected in school and lack participation in the extracurricular life of the school.[5] In addition, girl dropouts are particularly sensitive about the lack of having the "right" clothes, and of course financial needs of the family force some poor children to go to work.[1]

The commitment of the Welfare Administration to attack such problems is indicated by recent provisions which allow payments to age 21 for dependent children who remain in school. Public welfare departments throughout the United States helped carry out the President's 1963 crash program to prevent school dropouts. Youth in families receiving AFDC and child welfare services were contacted during the summer, encouraged to return to school in the fall, and helped to resolve problems which might prevent their return. School officials have responded with improved counseling, special classes, greater choice of courses, and other services designed to motivate dropouts to return and stay in school.[39] The Bureau of Family Services has allocated demonstration funds to several local public welfare agencies to interview and counsel teenagers and their parents on how the agency can help them continue their education and vocational preparation.

Day care centers hold great promise of furnishing the kind of services so needed to prepare low-income children for school. Even without a special enrichment program linguistic ability should be improved by contact with interested teachers who have a wide and grammatical command of the language. In addition, a variety of enriched experiences can be provided to compensate for some of the deficits of early training. In the area of achievement motivation, the element of caretaking alone through a day care program prevents children from having to fend for themselves and from feeling rejected by overwhelmed parents. The day care center may also give parents greater impetus to expect and reward achievement as they see their children demonstrate their competence and grow from experiences. Thus an earlier emphasis on self-reliance and achievement training may be created in the day care center and in the home which will help to develop the achievement motive. Development of day care services received a major stimulus from the 1962 Public Welfare Amendments, which authorized Federal grants to States specifically for this purpose.

Social welfare has had a long history of providing services which supplement and support the school attendance of needy children. For example, Neighborhood Settlement Centers have long combined their social services with literacy classes, preschool preparation and after-school enrichment. As established programs are revitalized and new ones introduced social welfare will continue to supplement and support educational achievement.

RESEARCH IN PROGRESS

The educational performance of low-income children proves to be a research topic of such vast size that the following

discussion is necessarily restricted to the work of the Division of Research of the Welfare Administration. The Division is especially concerned with two aspects of the problem: first, the effects of low-income and welfare-dependent status on children's educational performance, and, second, the testing of various types of social intervention used outside of the school to improve the educational performance of children from high-risk low-income populations.

The Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program within the Division supports several extramural research projects in these areas. Investigators at the University of Chicago are studying the use of preschool nurseries as an intervention technique with Negro children whose families are receiving AFDC. The nursery is being used as a means to improve school performance, to observe the children's behavior, and to study the socialization practices of the mothers. The Columbia University Institute of Urban Studies is undertaking an analysis of family and personal characteristics which help to create the academically successful slum child.[40] Still others at the Youth Development Center, Syracuse University, have already completed a study of the work experience of dropouts.[41] Among other things this study showed that white boys were better able to obtain and move to high status jobs than were Negro boys.

As part of its intramural research activity, the Division of Research is involved in several field projects concerned at least in part with the educational performance of low-income children. One is a study of family life and child-rearing practices among inner-city residents of Detroit. It will explore the effects of economic dependency and related conditions on the educational performance of elementary school children. Another is a study of relationships among dependency, school achievement, behavior problems, and economic opportunity based on information concerning the entire 1960 high school student body of Knox County, Tennessee. Among other things, the effects of welfare status on academic achievement and post-high-school employment and educational training will be examined.

This report is part of a larger study of educational performance among poor children, the influence of parents and peers, and the implications of these factors for improving social welfare services which are supportive to educational achievement. The preceding discussion has concentrated on the educational performance of low-income children as it is affected by certain of their important skills, motives, and opportunities in the home. Particular attention was called to major sources of educational deficiencies and the welfare services being used to overcome them. Other important social characteristics of the child, his family, and neighborhood milieu will be discussed in the larger study.

REFERENCES

1. Lee, Beatrice Crump: Project: School Dropouts. National Education Association, Washington, D.C., April 1963. Mimeographed.
2. Chilman, Catherine S.: "Child-Rearing and Family Relationship Patterns of the Very Poor," Welfare in Review, vol. 3, no. 1, January 1965, pp. 9-19.
3. Coll, Blanche D.: "Deprivation in Childhood: Its Relation to the Cycle of Poverty," Welfare in Review, vol. 3, no. 3, March 1965, pp. 1-10.
4. Mugge, Robert H.: "Education and AFDC," Welfare in Review, vol. 2, no. 1, January 1964, pp. 1-14.
5. Bowman, Paul H., and Charles V. Matthews: Motivations of Youth for Leaving School. University of Chicago, Chicago, 1959. Mimeographed report to U.S. Office of Education on Cooperative Research Project #200.
6. Burgess, M. Elaine, and Daniel O. Price: An American Dependency Challenge. American Public Welfare Association, Chicago, 1963.
7. Sexton, Patricia Cayo: Education and Income. Viking Press, New York, 1961.
8. Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited, Inc.: Youth in the Ghetto. Orans Press, New York, 1964.
9. Bloom, Benjamin S.: Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. Wiley, New York, 1964.
10. Riessman, Frank: The Culturally Deprived Child. Harper and Row, New York, 1962.
11. Cowhig, James D.: Characteristics of School Dropouts and High School Graduates, Farm and Nonfarm, 1960. Agricultural Economic Report No. 65. Economic Research Serv-

ice, Economic and Statistical Analysis Division, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1964.

12. Perrella, Vera C.: "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1963," Monthly Labor Review, May 1964, pp. 522-529.

13. Hunt, J. McV.: Intelligence and Experience. Ronald Press, New York, 1961.

14. Davis, Allison: "Socio-Economic Influences upon Children's Learning," speech delivered at Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, Washington, D.C., December 5, 1950.

15. Eells, Kenneth, Allison Davis, Robert J. Havighurst, V. E. Herrick, and Ralph Tyler: Intelligence and Cultural Differences. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1951.

16. Wolf, Richard M.: The Identification and Measurement of Environmental Process Variables Related to Intelligence. University of Chiago, Chicago, 1964. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.

17. Deutsch, Martin, and Bert Brown: "Social Influences in Negro-White Intelligence Differences," Journal of Social Issues, vol. 20, no. 2, April 1964, pp. 24-25.

18. Bernstein, Basil: "Social Class and Linguistic Development: A Theory of Social Learning," in A. H. Halsey, Jean Floud and C. Arnold Anderson, eds.: Education, Economy and Society. Free Press, New York, 1961, pp. 288-314.

19. Siller, Jerome: "Socioeconomic Status and Conceptual Thinking," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, vol. 55, 1957, pp. 365-371.

20. Haggard, Ernest A.: "Social Status and Intelligence: An Experimental Study of Certain Cultural Determinants of Measured Intelligence," Genetic Psychology Monographs, vol. 49, 1954, pp. 141-186.

21. Kirk, S. A.: Early Education of the Mentally Retarded. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Ill., 1958.

22. Research Council of the Great Cities Program for School Improvement: Promising Practices from the Projects for the Culturally Deprived. Chicago, 1964.

23. Passow, A. Harry, ed.: Education in Depressed Areas. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1963.

24. Ausubel, David P.: "The Influence of Experience on the Development of Intelligence," paper read at Conference on Productive Thinking in Education, Washington, D.C., May 1963.

25. McClelland, David C., and others: The Achievement Motive. Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York, 1953.

26. Atkinson, John W.: An Introduction to Motivation. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N.J., 1964.

27. Rosen, Bernard C.: "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psychocultural Dimension of Social Stratification," American Sociological Review, vol. 21, 1956, pp. 203-211.

28. Arnold, Magda B.: Story Sequence Analysis. Columbia University Press, New York, 1962.

29. Veroff, Joseph, John W. Atkinson, Sheila C. Feld, and Gerald Gurin. The Use of Thematic Apperception to Assess Motivation in a Nationwide Interview Study. Psychological Monographs, vol. 74, no. 12, no. 499, 1960.

30. Rosen, Bernard C.: "Race, Ethnicity, and the Achievement Syndrome," American Sociological Review, vol. 24, 1959, pp. 47-60.

31. McClelland, David C.: The Achieving Society. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N.J., 1961.

32. Rosen, Bernard C., and R. G. D'Andrade: "Psychosocial Origins of Achievement Motivation," Sociometry, vol. 22, 1959, pp. 185-218.

33. Strodtbeck, Fred L.: "Family Interaction, Values, and Achievement," in David C. McClelland, Alfred L. Baldwin, Urie Bronfenbrenner and Fred L. Strodtbeck: Talent and Society. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N.J., 1958.

34. Atkinson, John W.: "Motivational Determinants of Risk-Taking Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, vol. 64, 1957, pp. 359-372.

35. Douvan, Elizabeth: "Social Status and Success Strivings," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, vol. 52, 1956, pp. 219-223.

36. Deutsch, Martin: "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," in A. Harry Passow, ed.: Education in Depressed Areas. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1963, pp. 163-179.

37. Schorr, Alvin L.: Slums and Social Insecurity. Research Report No. 1. Division of Research and Statistics, Social Security Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963.

38. Hilliard, Raymond M.: The Blackboard Curtain. Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1963.

39. Office of Education: The 1963 Dropout Campaign. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1964.

40. Irelan, Lola M.: "Escape from the Slums: A Focus for Research," Welfare in Review, vol. 2, no. 12, December 1964, pp. 19-23.

41. Saleem, Beth, and S. M. Miller: Two Years in the Syracuse Labor Market--Work Experience of Dropouts. Youth Development Center, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y., January 1964.

Problems and Promise in the Use of Indigenous Personnel

JACK OTIS*

FOR THOUSANDS of social service agencies that have suffered from a chronic shortage of staff, the use of indigenous auxiliary personnel may represent an important new means of attacking the problem. As yet, not very much is known about how to recruit and utilize indigenous personnel effectively; much more systematic experience must be gained in their use before methods are established. We can nevertheless discern at this time the potential scope and possible effects of the use of indigenous aides and the problems that may be expected.

There are several major reasons why the development of the use of indigenous personnel is so important to people concerned with social welfare. First, of course, there is the major crisis in social work manpower. The schools of social work have been improving their rate of production, but still graduate fewer than 3,000 M.S.W.'s, and last year turned away over 800 qualified applicants. At the same time, 10,000 to 12,000 budgeted social work positions remain vacant for want of qualified social workers to fill them, and another 12,000 to 15,000 new graduates are needed each year to replace workers leaving the field and to staff new and expanded services.[1] If we project manpower needs of juvenile courts, training schools, departments of public welfare, the armed forces, and public schools, the dimensions of the crisis stand out in even bolder relief.

While the shortage of professional social workers continues into the future, new uses for manpower may be greatly needed in other quarters. Industrial technology is eliminating blue and white collar unskilled and semiskilled jobs at an accelerated rate. For youth, entry into the economy is becoming more difficult without advanced education; adults are retiring with many potentially useful years of work life ahead of them. Some major industries are enhancing the salaries, rights, and retirement benefits of the workers currently employed but at the same time effecting labor economies by reducing work crews and not replacing disabled or retired workers. By the late 1960's 3 million new young workers will enter the labor force each year, compared with 2 million a year in the early 1960's.

New resources for developing the use of auxiliary personnel have been made available by the Economic Opportunity Act

*Deputy Director, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, Welfare Administration. Based on a paper presented at the annual meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Denver, Colo., January 20, 1965.

[1]Cohen, Wilbur J.: "The Role of the Federal Government in Expansion of Social Work Training," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, Denver, Colo., January 19, 1965.

of 1964. The VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America) program expects to train approximately 2,000 volunteers with varied educational backgrounds for subprofessional tasks in correctional institutions, hospitals, social agencies, public housing projects, community action programs, and the like.

The community action programs are required to utilize the services of indigenous persons, and guidelines have been developed for employing them in social welfare programs as aides in group work, public assistance, community organization, casework, and family counseling. A great many other tasks as aides in schools and in health services have also been suggested which will have bearing upon the practice of social work in these areas.[2] Approximately 5,000 such positions may be created through community action programs during the first year of operation of the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Additional resources for the development of auxiliary personnel will be available through the neighborhood youth corps and the work experience and training programs, also authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act. The purpose of the work experience programs, which are administered by States and communities in cooperation with the Welfare Administration, is to expand the opportunities for constructive work experience and training available to needy persons. It will be possible, therefore, to train public assistance recipients as auxiliary personnel in carrying out services to other persons in need.

It is clear that these programs are part of a great social movement to make available to those at the bottom of the socioeconomic ladder the benefits of an affluent society and to do so in ways that mobilize the abilities of the poor to help themselves.

To summarize, the social work manpower shortage, the elimination of routine blue and white collar jobs by automation and cybernation, the great increase in new workers in a declining labor market for the unskilled and the semiskilled, the growth of Federal programs which in effect fund the establishment of new types of work in the social services, and a great new movement on behalf of and with the poor will lead, in the next few years, to the most significant expansion of auxiliary personnel in our history. Some of these developments will sustain and strengthen social work as we know it, but others will pose new strains and challenges for social work that may set it moving in new directions.

[2]Schmais, Aaron: "Non-Professionals and Community Action," manuscript.

TYPES OF AUXILIARIES

The strain, or lack of strain, upon social work will hinge upon the type of auxiliary that is employed. An auxiliary may be a nonprofessional, a subprofessional, or a person in a new career role.[3]

The nonprofessional performs clerical, mechanical, maintenance, and generally routine tasks. He may do mimeograph work, organize car pools, drive a car, keep the reception and play rooms tidy, etc. He makes it possible for the professional to have more time for professional duties.

The subprofessional functions as an assistant and performs tasks that are reallocations of the professional role. He may help a client fill out forms, determine simple eligibility requirements for service, help carry cases supportively, provide simple, well-defined services, etc. Use of the subprofessional thus increases delivery of the simpler functions traditionally assigned to professional staff. However, the latter may not gain more time since they will need to give time to supervision.

The new career consists of functions which have not been performed or have been poorly performed by the profes-

[3]For further discussion of this typology see Perry Levinson and Jeffry Schiller, "The Indigenous Non-Professional: Research Issues," Research Working Paper Number 6, Division of Research, Welfare Administration, 1965.

sional staff because of their middle-class background, the established definition of the role and function of the profession, and the traditional functions of the agency. The new career centers on a new function which capitalizes on the lower-class status of the individual. For example, in a voter registration drive on the lower East Side of New York City in which professionals and indigenous community organizers participated, the latter had far greater success. A recent Children's Bureau survey showed that low-income mothers can be used successfully in recruiting other low-income mothers for parent education classes. The new function may make use of a skill the individual already has, such as homemaking, or special skills developed through inservice training.

These are overly simplified, thumbnail definitions but accurate enough to make a preliminary formulation of the problems involved. The nonprofessional and subprofessional functions are problems for the profession in terms of (a) careful agency delineation of the tasks to be performed; (b) allocation of financial resources and space for personnel to be hired; (c) provision of inservice training in the carrying out of the designated functions; and (d) allotment of supervisory time for the subprofessional. After some initial inconvenience and accommodation, all of this can be done with little stress and strain upon professional staff and agency operations and enhance the productive capacities of the agency.

The new career helping role for the low-income indigenous aide has in common with the nonprofessional and subprofessional only the need for financial resources and space. In every other respect it is qualitatively different because the individual's lower-class status is in itself an important qualification and the basis of the contribution that he makes. Obviously he can be trained and utilized in nonprofessional and subprofessional tasks, but since these represent a differentiation of functions already performed by the agency, in these tasks his lower-class style is either ignored or, more typically, transformed into middle-class manners, dress, speech, etc. Such a transformation may be valuable in performing nonprofessional and subprofessional tasks but detrimental in carrying out the new career role.

THE USES OF AUXILIARIES IN THE NEW CAREER

Indigenous personnel in the new career are a potentially major instrument of health and welfare agencies in the war on poverty because they can link the poor with the services in the community. It has been noted that many indigenous low-income persons can assume this role because of what they are. The expediter "is poor, is from the neighborhood, is often a member of a minority group. His family is poor. He is a peer of the client and shares a common background, language, ethnic origin, style and group of interests which it would be impossible and perhaps even undesirable for most professionals to maintain."[4] All of this provides him with a kind of knowledge, demeanor, and style that makes him readily acceptable to clients as "one of us." Clients see these workers as peers who really know what the score is, and they are willing to give them information about their lives and attitudes that is not readily obtained by professionals, if at all. As paid employees of a community agency they are a sign to the poor that the agency really wants to help. In one city neighborhood, a strong relationship was developed between an upper-class Bostonian social worker and clients in the lowest socioeconomic classes. This relationship was initiated and sustained by utilizing a natural leader with whom the clients could identify. One of the results was the expanded use of the maternal health clinics by the poor. A

[4]Reiff, Robert, and Frank Riessman: The Indigenous Non-Professional. National Institute of Labor Education, Washington, D.C., 1964, p. 8.

few months earlier, the public health district was planning to close them because of lack of clientele. Utilization of existing services may be improved significantly by extending the services of personnel in this new career role.

In addition to obtaining information and bringing the poor in contact with services, a most important complementary function of the new career indigenous worker is that of informing professional and supervisory staff whether the service is effectively related to the needs of the poor. Is the physical location of the agency appropriate to serving the poor? Do its procedures frighten people away? Is the service or function perceived as being useful by lower-class clientele? Is the office open at times convenient to potential users? Are the attitudes of staff perceived by the poor as being helpful, indifferent, or hostile? If the professional leadership will listen to the answers brought back by the indigenous worker, the potential for improving services may be considerable. An evaluation of a pilot domestic peace corps project in Harlem showed that those corpsmen who were most "savvy" with respect to the problems of Central Harlem were the most effective. For the sake of their clientele, health and welfare agencies need to cultivate deliberately such intimate knowledge and modify agency operations in the light of what is learned.[5]

In recent years, serious professional criticism has been raised against those community health and welfare agencies which provide only an "illusion of service" to the poor. While their intention is to serve the poor, in fact the services and techniques for delivering them are geared to middle-class clientele. There is also increasing concern over the possibility that health and welfare services specifically geared to the poor may be provided in such a way as to discourage and humiliate them. Besides making services more accessible to the poor, the career indigenous worker can help sensitize agencies to such problems as the relevance of services to needs and the appropriateness of the style of delivering services.

The new career auxiliary does not typically render the service himself, but performs a bridging, articulating function between client and organization. Thus, he is necessarily an agent of change. Efforts toward change may be focused on the prospective client to add to his knowledge and alter attitudes so that he may make use of a service, or they may be focused on the agency, adding to staff knowledge and altering staff attitudes and organizational procedures. This leads to a further point which has great significance, if valid. Efforts of indigenous aides directed at the client may have a genuine, therapeutic effect because of the following possible factors:

1. A peer with whom the client can readily identify is in the helping role.
2. The helper's position in an official agency is a sign that the client can make the grade, too.
3. Help oriented toward resolving concrete problems is better understood by the poor and serves to reduce tension.
4. The helper's unabashed enthusiasm is contagious.
5. The indigenous person's definition of the client's problem, which may well be different from the professional's, may make a helping relationship possible. A supervisor of the homemaker service in the Mobilization for Youth program in New York City has written:

> "Somehow Mrs. Smith was less forbidding to the homemaker than the caseworker, who was frightened of her. She was well-meaning, easily misunderstood, and temperamental. But she wasn't 'paranoid, rejecting, abusive.' Mrs. Casey was a 'fine person who cared for her children,' and that was the main thing even if she had four illegitimate offspring. To the social worker she was de-

---

[5]Associated Community Teams, Inc.: Nation's First Domestic Peace Corps and Adult Voluntary Service Corps. Final Report Vols. I-III. New York, 1964.

pressed, practically ego-less, 'so self-destructive.'"[6]

The use of the indigenous helper in a therapeutic role should be the subject of careful study because of its implications. The problem of coordinating this role with that of the professional will be a considerable one. Both will need to learn to live with and make use of each other's point of view and to be permissive when differences arise in areas where knowledge of the right course of action is uncertain.

There will need to be a continuing two-way process in the delineation of tasks to be performed, the provision of inservice training, and the professional monitoring of the new career auxiliaries. The low-income indigenous auxiliary should be able to contribute to the agency's definition of its own task and the way it administers its functions; enrich the inservice training of the professional by providing neighborhood "savvy"; and help the professional view himself in relation to the client's needs and attitudes.

Experimentation and study of the use of auxiliaries in the new career are badly needed. Development of such experience can be seriously blocked if we should become more concerned about professionalism than problem-solving. An even more serious difficulty can be caused by those who romanticize the use of the indigenous and give insufficient attention to its careful development, evaluation, and reformulation as a result of experience. Premature failure can often set back a useful social invention more effectively than active opposition. We know that poor people, like other people, can be indifferent, punitive, or exploitative. The auxiliary may, understandably, wish to emulate the professional and his style, particularly if his salary level should take him out of the very low income category. Without denying or demeaning the potential usefulness of this aspiration, it is necessary to see clearly that a change of role to that of the subprofessional is taking place.

[6]Goldberg, Gertrude: Untrained Neighborhood Workers in a Social Work Program. Mobilization for Youth, Inc., New York, 1964. Mimeographed.

LEGITIMATION OF THE NEW CAREER

The adequate performance of a useful role is the heart of the problem of legitimation of an occupation. The social worker has achieved legitimacy through performance of a needed function, graduate education, and the backing of a professional association. The new career auxiliary must also be legitimated for the sake of protecting the public interest, so that he himself may feel secure in the performance of his new role, and so that he functions effectively. Recruitment, training, group support, and supervision are key elements in the legitimation process.

Recruitment

The first phase of recruitment is agency definition of the role to be performed. This will lead to sex and age requirements, and relevant qualifications such as neighborhood residence, minority or ethnic status, language skills (bilingualism may be necessary), articulateness, and capacity to tolerate frustration and other personality traits. Interviewing will help, but role-playing with other indigenous persons in areas relevant to the tasks to be performed can be even more useful.

In the recruitment process, besides formal sources such as the State employment service and newspaper advertisements, it will be important to use community organizers and other workers in the field, public housing staff, churches, departments of public welfare, settlement houses, etc., in order to have a good base for selection. A significant problem noted by one agency which recruited parent-education aides was that some residents of the neighborhood who would have been acceptable were reluctant to respond because they did not feel qualified to participate in such a program. This fact reinforces the importance of promot-

ing word-of-mouth recruitment so that appropriate interpretation and support can be offered.

Training

One objective of training will be to help the recruit recognize that he knows more than he is willing to give himself credit for. The woman who has learned to manage a household on an AFDC budget may know more that can be useful to other AFDC mothers than a graduate home economist. The trainer should convey his respect for the recruit's knowledge of the neighborhood, its cliques, the attitudes that the people have toward each other and toward community institutions.

Training should be a vehicle for interpreting the role of the agency and the specific ways in which the recruit will be expected to provide assistance. The relationship of the work of professionals and community institutions to the job of the recruit should be explained. He will need to know how to hold and participate in meetings and the rules of procedure in order to work in and with groups.

While training should be oriented toward practice in order to assure success on the job, no opportunity should be overlooked to provide a conceptual-philosophic framework to the trainee in terms he can understand. The idealistic, humanitarian, democratic movement in which he is participating should be explained for the sake of his general education and to reinforce motivation.

Riessman points to some special problems that should be included in the recruit's orientation to his role:[7]

1. Confidentiality. This has two components: the recruit must keep information confidential from nonworkers and he must share relevant information with the employing agency and others. Longstanding mistrust of community agencies may hinder him in doing the latter.

2. Overidentification with the agency and consequent underidentification with the community. This is the problem referred to earlier of aspiring to be like the professional, of emulating the group in power. This will militate against adequate two-way communication because the worker will not be scrutinizing community agencies in terms of their inadequacies as perceived by the poor. The trainer and supervisor will need to help the recruit be true to his function.

3. Acceptance of authority. Having been perennial recipients of formal authority, indigenous workers will often feel negative toward and uncomfortable with the use of bureaucratic authority.

4. Overoptimism turning into defeatism. A number of experiences have shown that the indigenous worker expects quick results when he takes on the helping role. He fails to understand how resistant to change personalities and institutions are. The development of realistic attitudes that will sustain motivation will be an important task of training programs.

A fifth problem may well be added to this list:

5. Relationships to intra- and interagency professionals. Not only will recruits not be college graduates, many will not have graduated from high school. Certified social workers, other professionals and subprofessionals with a college degree, school teachers, public health nurses, probation officers, etc., will have natural anxieties over using these recruits in a helping role. Their anxieties will concern the ability of aides to perform a helping role, fear of potential harm to the client, and the threat to their own professional status. The subprofessional with a bachelor's degree is likely to feel even more threatened and therefore more hostile to the enterprise. The recruits should be prepared for this development; otherwise their morale may be shattered before they have had a chance to prove themselves.

This strongly suggests the need for inservice training to orient the professionals as well in terms of attitudes and

---

[7]Riessman, Frank: The Revolution in Social Work: The New Non-Professional. Mobilization for Youth Report. New York. October 1963.

behavior toward the recruits and ways of using the special contribution the recruits can make. An oft-noted fact of life is that the gap between the professional and the impoverished is such that a professional may feel much more comfortable with his counterpart in another country than with the poor in his own. Without preparation and continued in-service training, the experience with indigenous auxiliaries may demoralize both auxiliaries and professionals.

The agency administration will also need to interpret to the public at large what is being done and why and, together with supervisory staff, prepare the professionals in other agencies who will be affected by the work of the recruit. Training will be the responsibility of the operating agency because of its on-the-job nature. This will make for considerable demands upon the agency to develop and expand training and supervisory functions, demands which many agencies will not be able to meet. Agencies may need to pool their resources for training purposes, as well as make use of university consultation and teaching assistance.

It has been advised that training methodology should emphasize the concrete. Field experience should start early and lectures and bookwork kept to a minimum. Emphasis should be placed upon role-playing as a teaching device; the building of group cohesiveness; reliance upon group supervision, which is less threatening to the trainee, while at the same time making available impromptu individual supervision; and on using "an exceedingly explicit down-to-earth teaching style."[8]

Group Support

The ambivalence and resistance which recruits may understandably feel toward the new career role argue for doing everything possible to sustain morale and motivation. Outnumbering the professionals would help. Group training and supervision will also enhance their feelings of security and cohesion. Group supervision is not only less threatening; members of the group are more willing to learn from each other. Development of a New Career or Neighborhood Helper Association, complete with insurance coverage and credit union, may help members achieve an identity and confirm their importance as a group. When they finally become C.N.H.'s, or Certified Neighborhood Helpers, they will "have it made."

Supervision

In providing group supervision and ad hoc individual supervision, the supervisor will need to help the recruit deal with his intra- and inter-agency relationship problems, understand the lawful limits of what the agency and others can do in a particular situation, and overcome feelings of inadequacy and impatience. Also, the supervisor should know when to recommend further education for individual recruits and be able to help professional and subprofessional staff with their adjustment to the recruits. But where are these supervisors to come from? How will they be reeducated?

There are no certain answers to these questions. However, there is a growing body of interest and knowledge about lower-class culture that can be applied. Anthropologists, community or social psychiatrists, social psychologists, specialists in education, and others will have important contributions to make. It is likely that an interdisciplinary team that can organize short-term training and curriculum development projects would meet this need. Their focus would be on the reorientation of professionals, supervisors, and administrators to help them make effective use of new manpower. Schools of social work can play a leading role in organizing such centers on a cooperative basis with other departments and schools in the university. Funds may become available through one or more titles of the Economic Opportunity Act for this purpose. There are already some viable interdisciplinary models in urban study centers, youth study centers, and training centers which have been

[8] Ibid., pp. 38-44.

developed under the Federal legislation for delinquency control. Many of these can be expanded to include manpower study and training functions. The Howard University Center for Youth and Community Studies is already engaged in experimenting with new career training for indigenous youth and training for professionals who will work with indigenous workers.

Schools of social work would be well advised to allocate staff time for the study of emerging trends in the nonprofessional, subprofessional, and new career areas so that social work education can be related to those developments found to be sound. In this way, consultation and monitoring skills could be made available and a body of knowledge organized. Such engagement of the university in general and schools of social work in particular may serve as an important legitimator of this exciting use of low-income indigenous persons in assisting their peers.

Child Welfare Research and Demonstration Projects

Three new research projects in child welfare will be undertaken with the support of grants recently awarded by the Child Welfare Research and Demonstration Grants Program, which is administered by the Children's Bureau.

The differences in development among children reared in their own homes, in foster care, and in residential group care will be studied by the Yale University Child Study Center with the support of a $72,762 grant.

The Council on Social Work Education in New York City received $50,000 for a curriculum development project in social work education related to the welfare of children.

A study of day care programs will be undertaken by Pacific Oaks College in Pasadena, California, with a $41,798 grant. The investigators will try to find out how different group day care settings affect a child's development.

Four grants were awarded for the continuation of research projects. Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee, received $45,644 to continue a study on the development and adjustment of Negro American children. Florence Crittenton Association of America, Inc., the National Conference of Catholic Charities, and the Salvation Army, Inc., received a total of $22,234 for developing and testing a data collecting instrument for universal use of agencies serving unmarried mothers. The Child Welfare League of America was awarded $18,360 for a followup study of Caucasian families who have adopted American Indian children and $17,551 for further exploration of caseworkers' perceptions of adoptive applicants.

Three grants were awarded for continuation of demonstration projects dealing with mentally and physically handicapped children. Associated YM-YWHAs of Greater New York received $64,551 to study the problems of integrating physically handicapped with nonhandicapped children in recreational groups. Association for Homemakers Service, Inc., and Retarded Infants Service, Inc., in New York City received $42,265 to study the value of homemaker services in the family with a retarded child under the age of five. Iowa Children's Home Society in Des Moines was awarded $28,856 for continuing the demonstration of a method for working with emotionally disturbed children in foster care.

Cooperative Research and Demonstration Reports*

TWO YEARS IN THE SYRACUSE LABOR MARKET: WORK EXPERIENCE OF DROPOUTS

High school dropouts represent a serious socioeconomic problem in American society. Of the 2-1/2 million youths who will be seeking employment each year in the 1960's, approximately one-third will not have been graduated from high school.[1] School dropouts find themselves ill-equipped to function in a competitive and highly selective labor market. They face frequent, prolonged, and unpredictable periods of unemployment which contribute to their economic marginality and possible eventual dependence upon public assistance.

Data from empirical research serve as a basis for understanding the phenomenon of dropping out of school and aid in the development of appropriate intervention techniques. One source of such data is a recently completed research project which focused on the background and work experience of high school dropouts. This investigation was directed by S. M. Miller of the Youth Development Center at Syracuse University. The sample population was chosen from a list of 625 youths who had left school in Syracuse, N.Y., during the 1959-60 academic year. Thirty youths were randomly selected to represent each of four groups, boys from families receiving public assistance, girls from such families, and, separately, boys and girls from families not receiving public assistance.

The youths were interviewed approximately 2 years after leaving school. The interview concentrated on the identification of family and class characteristics and on employment experience of the dropouts. Information concerning public assistance, New York State Employment Service registration, law enforcement agency contacts, and school achievement levels was obtained from the records of the appropriate agencies and institutions. Comparisons were made between males and females, whites and nonwhites, welfare recipients and nonrecipients, and permanent and temporary dropouts. The following is a brief summary of results of this research.

Social Class Identification

The analysis of the data concerning the social class membership of school dropouts studied showed that the majority of dropouts came from families in the lower socioeconomic groups. Forty percent of the fathers were operatives (this standard category includes occupational groups such as truck drivers, automobile servicemen, parking attendants, and dry cleaning and laundry operatives), 17 percent craftsmen, and 24 percent service workers. Furthermore, 59 percent of the dropouts lived in the worst areas of the city at the time of leaving school.

On the other hand, Miller's study indicates that a substantial proportion of these school dropouts came from middle-class backgrounds. Nineteen percent of the dropouts had fathers who were white-collar or clerical workers, and 15 percent resided with their parents in the two highest socioeconomic areas of the city.

Marital Status

At the time of the interview, 33 percent of the boys and 48 percent of the girls were married. Many of the girls gave marriage or pregnancy as the primary reason for having left school. Of

---

*Based on reports from projects aided by the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program administered by the Welfare Administration with the cooperation of the Social Security Administration. Requests for additional information on these studies should be directed to the project investigators.

[1] U.S. Department of Labor: Manpower--Challenge of the 1960's. 1960.

those youths who were single, 84 percent lived with their parents; of those who were married, 84 percent lived independently. Almost half of the married dropouts were married to high school graduates. The fact that a dropout was married appeared to have no effect on the stability of his employment. Those dropouts who were married and who were also parents, however, had better employment records than the other dropouts.

Delinquency

It was found that 56 percent of the boys and 86 percent of the girls had never been arrested, and that "Only one-quarter of the boys and none of the girls committed any offense after leaving school; most delinquency occurred before the youths dropped out. Those who were arrested after dropping out had also been arrested before dropping out in 9 of the 11 cases."

Employment

Those boys who were 16 years of age or under when they left school took longer to find their first job than the older youths. One-fifth of the dropouts were within 1 year of graduating when they left school, and only one-fifth were at grade levels normal for their age at the time of dropout.

Approximately one-third of the boys had found a job before they left school--perhaps a factor precipitating their decision to drop out. Sixty-one percent of the girls had begun looking for employment within a month after leaving school. Thus, it seems that the youngsters were willing and often eager to enter the labor market. Three-fourths of the boys were able to find employment within 6 months after leaving school, and a third of the girls were working within 2 months. Those boys who had worked while still in school improved their chances of finding a job quickly after leaving school.

Most dropouts left their first jobs to find others. Among white boys, with job change the percentage of operative jobs increased and service jobs decreased--an indication of upward mobility. On the other hand, a significant number of the nonwhite boys remained in the lower status positions. Nonwhite boys were not employed as white-collar workers or craftsmen, whereas 30 percent of the jobs of white boys were in these categories. Nonwhites were service workers more often than whites (36 percent compared with 12 percent). Clearly, the Negro dropout was more disadvantaged in the labor market than his white counterpart.

The occupational distribution of all the boys was as follows: clerical, 20 percent; packers and wrappers, 10 percent; dry cleaning operatives, 7 percent; kitchen workers, 6 percent; babysitters, 6 percent; and sales clerks, 9 percent.

Among the boys, 48 percent of the nonwhites and 34 percent of the whites were earning $1.25 an hour or less. Among the girls, 77 percent earned $1.25 an hour or less.

As might be expected, dropouts held their jobs for relatively short periods of time. Seventy-five percent of the dropouts held their jobs for 6 months or less, and only 16 percent held them for more than 6 months. Saleem and Miller claim that "The high degree of job mobility does not support, however, the belief that dropouts cannot hold jobs due to immaturity and lack of skill. It is more likely that the dropout is searching for a job which is suitable to him in terms of pay and interest, a job with which he can identify occupationally." Consequently, the problem becomes one of whether, with his inexperience and lack of training, the dropout ever achieves this occupational identity.

Public Assistance

Several interesting facts were revealed when dropouts from families which had at some time received public assistance were compared with dropouts from families which had not. More boys from families which had received assistance than from families which had not were in white-collar, craft, or operative jobs. On the

other hand, more girls from recipient families than from nonrecipient families were service workers.

As indicated by the number of jobs held over a given period of time, both boys and girls from recipient families were less steady and successful workers than youths from nonrecipient families. A significantly larger percentage of dropouts from recipient families held from three to five jobs within 2 years after leaving school and, in the year preceding the interview, consistently applied for more jobs than did dropouts from nonrecipient families.

The data suggest that although dropouts from families which had received public assistance may have found comparatively good jobs with relative ease, they also stayed on one job for a relatively short time--a finding which appears to warrant further investigation.

The Returnees

A unique aspect of this study is its attention to the dropout who returns to school. The primary purpose of this part of the investigation, which included the entire dropout group--565 dropouts and 60 returnees, was to ascertain whether those who return to school after dropping out are similar to or different from those who remain out of school. Aspects of academic performance, social background, and personal characteristics of the two groups were compared. The investigators hypothesized that a dropout from a middle-class environment is more likely to be supported by that environment in returning to school than is a lower class dropout. In comparing the data for dropouts and returnees, it was found that:

1. There was no significant difference between boys and girls in propensity to return to school.
2. There was no significant difference among age groups in propensity to return to school.
3. Approximately four-fifths of the returnees but only three-fifths of the permanent dropouts had reached grades 10, 11, or 12 before dropping out.
4. There were no significant differences in the occupations of the fathers between the two groups.
5. Thirty percent of the returnees' families had received public assistance at some time since 1936, compared with 42 percent of the families of permanent dropouts.
6. Returnees tended to live in slightly better residential areas than did permanent dropouts.
7. There was a tendency for returnees to come from more stable families than permanent dropouts.
8. There were no significant differences in the delinquency rates between the groups.

These findings indicate that there are but few significant differences between returnees and permanent dropouts. Consequently, counseling and other services may yield a high probability of success in helping teenagers overcome those difficulties that block a dropout's return to school.

Conclusion

Miller's investigation is an indication of the growing concern in the United States with the problems of youth who drop out of school. The generalizability of the findings are yet undetermined because of the relatively small sample used. These data, however, enable other researchers and program planners to assess their project designs and intervention techniques in terms of the major trends and research issues presented.

--Jeffry Schiller,
Division of Research

Projects Aided Under the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program

The following tables list projects aided under the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program administered by the Welfare Administration with the cooperation of the Social Security Administration.

Table 1 lists projects completed since the first grant award was made in March 1961 up to June 30, 1965. Since, under the terms of the grant awards, final reports are not due until 6 months after the expiration of the grant period, reports on recently completed projects may not yet be available. In all cases, requests for final reports or additional information should be directed to the project director at the address shown.

Table 2 lists projects currently being supported, or which have been approved for support, as of June 30, 1965. The completion date is that estimated by the grantee.

Of the 269 applications which have been submitted to the program, 87 (32 percent) have been approved for support; 36 of these projects have been completed, and 51 are being supported or have been approved for support.

In fiscal year 1965, 20 initial applications were approved for support. Twelve of these were recommended for support for 1 year only; six were recommended for support for not more than 2 years, and two for a 3-year period. Support for more than 1 year is contingent upon satisfactory progress and, of course, on appropriations made by Congress. In eight instances, approval was for exploratory studies. If the exploratory work shows the need for expanded studies, a new application must be submitted for review.

As final reports are received, summaries of results are published in Welfare in Review; projects of primary interest to the Social Security Administration are also summarized in the Social Security Bulletin.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 states: "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." Therefore, the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program, like every program or activity receiving financial assistance from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, must be operated in compliance with this law.

Forms and instructions for submitting applications to the Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program may be obtained from: Chief, Research Grants Branch, Division of Research, Welfare Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 330 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20201. Inquiries about the program are welcomed and may be sent to the above address at any time. To allow thorough review by specialists in the field and by members of the Advisory Panel, applications should be received on or before January 15, June 1, or October 1 for projects to begin no earlier than June, November 1, or March 1, respectively.

TABLE 1. PROJECTS COMPLETED AS OF JUNE 1965

Project number	Project title	Grantee and project director
001	Attitudes Toward Dependency: A Study of 105 AFDC Mothers	Bryn Mawr College (Pa.); Jane Kronick
004	Use and Non-Use of Public Assistance Funds by Child-Rearing Units in a Low-Income Community	Brandeis University (Mass.); David G. French
005	Exploratory Study on Organization of Public Assistance Personnel	University of Chicago; Edward Schwartz
006	Unwed Motherhood: Background and Social Consequences	University of North Carolina; Charles Bowerman
007	Services to Families Being Evicted From Public Low-Rent Housing	Friends Neighborhood Guild (Philadelphia); Mildred Guinessy
009	Income Maintenance and Adjustment Programs in Relation to Needs	Northern Michigan College; Jean Pearman
013	Family Problems in an Area of Rapid Social Change	University of Georgia; Raymond Payne and Stanley Fowler
017	Effectiveness of Services in Changing Values Among Negro Boys of AFDC Families	Goodrich Social Settlement (Cleveland); John Cox
019	Credit Union Services to Low-Income Groups	University of Notre Dame (Ind.); John Croteau
026	Research Demonstration with Dependent Multi-Problem Families	Chemung County Council of Community Services (New York); David Wallace
028	Teenage Illegitimacy as Personal, Interpersonal and Community Deviancy	University of Michigan; Ronald Lippitt and Henry Meyer
034	Longitudinal Study of Retirement	Cornell University (New York); Gordon Streib
037	Decision-Making Process Leading to Institutionalization of the Aged	North Texas State University; Hiram Friedsam
042	Fatherless Families and Housing: A Study in Dependency	Syracuse University (New York); Irwin Deutscher and Seymour Bellin
047	Analysis of Suitable Home Cases Acted Upon by State Review Team	Florida State University; Robert Lansdale
058	Influence of Old-Age Insurance and Private Pension Plans on Spending-Saving Behavior	Survey Research Center, University of Michigan; George Katona
072	Protective Services for Older People	Benjamin Rose Institute (Cleveland) Margaret Blenkner
075	Intercountry Public Welfare Services	New York School of Social Work (New York City); Kenneth Murase
078	Study of an Aged Low-Income Population in a Public Housing Project	Trinity University (Texas); Frances Carp
085	Determinants of the Geographic Mobility of Labor	University of Michigan; John Lansing and Eva Mueller
088	Family-Centered Treatment Research and Demonstration Project with Dependent Multi-Problem Families	University of Puerto Rico; Rosa C. Marin
091	A Study of Early Retirement and Programs of Preparation for Retirement	Cornell University (New York); John McConnell
092	The Short-Term Reading Readiness Nursery: A Social Intervention Technique	University of Chicago; Fred Strodtbeck

(continued)

TABLE 1. Projects completed as of June 1965--continued

Project number	Project title	Grantee and project director
098	Effect on Families and Individuals in a Rural Community When Public Relief was Exhausted	Community Chest and Council of the Cincinnati Area; William Walton
099	Planning for Evaluation of Services, Pruitt-Igoe (St. Louis) Housing Project	Missouri Department of Public Health and Welfare; Virginia Turner
105	Measures of Social Functioning in Multi-Problem Families in Central Harlem	Commissioner of Welfare of the City of New York (Interdepartmental Neighborhood Center); Lillian Lampkin
110	Design of an Evaluation Study of Consumer Education	Joint Settlement Committee (New York City); Kenneth Lenihan
115	Social Characteristics and Employment Experiences in School Drop-Outs	Syracuse University (New York); S.M. Miller
133	Study of AFDC Families and Children	University of North Carolina; Daniel Price
145	Social Work as a Career: The Plans and Experiences of America's 1961 College Graduates	National Opinion Research Center (Chicago); Norman Miller
148	Educational Barriers to Economic Security in Large Cities	Teachers College, Columbia Univ. (New York City); Robert Dentler
157	Family Life and Economic Dependency	Bryn Mawr College (Pa.); Jane Kronick
158	The Aged, Family and Friends	Western Reserve Univ. (Ohio); Irving Rosow
166	Exploratory Project on the Major Leadership Role in Multi-Problem Families	Hospital and Welfare Board of Hillsborough Co. (Tampa, Fla.); Dorothy Johnson
189	Unwed Motherhood: Personal and Social Consequences	University of North Carolina; Charles Bowerman
229	Social Patterns and Child Behavior in the Dependent and Other Low-Income Families	Detroit Dept. of Public Welfare; Oliver Moles, Welfare Administration, Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare

TABLE 2. CURRENT PROJECTS AS OF JUNE 1965

Project number	Project title	Grantee and project director	Estimated or actual ending date
029	Pilot Study of Nursing Home Costs	University of Michigan; Kenton Winter	12-31-65
059	Unmarried Mothers who Keep the First Out-Of-Wedlock Child	Community Council of Greater New York; Mignon Sauber	10-31-65
067	Some Social Aspects of Urban Renewal	The Menninger Foundation (Topeka, Kansas); William Key	1-31-66
090	Organization and Utilization of Public Assistance Personnel	University of Chicago; Edward Schwartz	3-31-66
103	Contribution of Community Development to the Prevention of Dependency	Wisconsin Winnebago Business Committee; Nancy Lurie	9-30-65
107	Economic Status, Unemployment, and Family Growth	University of Michigan; Ronald Freedman	8-31-65

(continued)

TABLE 2. Current projects as of June 1965--continued

Project number	Project title	Grantee and project director	Estimated or actual ending date
124	Experimental Short-Term Reading Readiness Study	University of Chicago; Fred Strodtbeck	12-31-65
125	Economic Functions of Kinship Structures in Low-Income Groups	Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc. (D.C.); Leonard Goodman	2-28-66
127	A Comparative Analysis of the Culture of Poverty in Puerto Rico and New York	University of Illinois; Oscar Lewis	5-31-66
132	Effect of Income on Expenditure for and Use of Health Services	University of Chicago; Margaret Reid	5-31-66
135	Temporary Disability Insurance for Farm Workers	University of Michigan; Philip Booth	12-31-65
139	A Family Centered Treatment Research and Demonstration Project in Puerto Rico with Dependent Multi-Problem Families	University of Puerto Rico; Rosa C. Marin	5-31-66
151	A Longitudinal Study of the Effects of Pre-Retirement Education on the Adjustment in Retirement of Hourly Rated Workers	University of Michigan; Woodrow Hunter	8-31-66
155	Consequences of a State Suitable Home Law for ADC Families in Florida	Florida State University; Lewis Killian	10-31-66
160	Study of Nursing Home Patient Care Needs in Relation to Sources of Support and Admission	University of Michigan; Kenton Winter	12-31-65
164	Employment Opportunities of Negro and White Youth	Johns Hopkins University (Md.); Bernard Levenson	10-31-65
170	A Field Survey of Migratory Farm Labor in Wisconsin	University of Wisconsin; Elizabeth Raushenbush	8-31-65
171	Modes of Withdrawals from Active Occupational Roles by Farmers, Small Town Merchants, Professionals, and Factory Workers 50 and Older in Iowa	Iowa State University; Jon Doerflinger	2-28-67
175	Research and Demonstration Project on Protective Services for Older People	The Benjamin Rose Institute (Cleveland); Margaret Blenkner	5-31-67
176	A Self-Help Community Effort in a Fringe In-Migrant Section of Las Vegas, Nevada	Nevada Tuberculosis and Health Assn.; Elaine Walbroek	2-28-66
178	An Exploratory Study of Family Measurement Instruments	Washington State University; F. Ivan Nye	10-31-65
181	Alternative Deployment of Public Assistance and Trained Casework Personnel	New York City Department of Welfare; Lawrence Podell	6-30-67
182	The Effect of Legal and Policy Restrictions on the Availability and Utilization of Services by Non-Residents	United Good Neighbors Fund of Seattle and King Co.(Wash.); Murray B. Meld	10-31-65
185	Experimental Study of Casework Methods and Procedures	Community Services Society of New York; Ann Shyne	6-30-68
190	Research-Action on Prevention of Family Disorganization	Rutgers, The State University (New Jersey); Ludwig Geismar	8-31-69
191	A Study of Blue-Collar Worker Resistance to Preretirement Education	Pennsylvania State University; H. K. Dansereau and H. J. Golatz	8-31-65
193	Poverty and Aging as Factors in Social Isolation	Bureau of Social Science Research (D.C.); George S. Rosenberg	5-31-66
199	Identification and Experimental Modification of Social-Psychological Correlates of Economic Dependency	Iowa State University; Paul R. Kimmel	9-30-65

(continued)

TABLE 2. Current projects as of June 1965--continued

Project number	Project title	Grantee and project director	Estimated or actual ending date
200	The Successful Urban Slum Child: A Psychological Study of Personality and Academic Success in Deprived Children	Teachers College, Columbia University, (New York City); Bernard Mackler	5-31-67
201	Legal Interventions, Social Mobility, and Dependency--A Study of Public Assistance in Housing	Oberlin College (Ohio); Kiyoshi Ikeda	9-30-66
202	Concerted Services Baseline Study	University of Miami (Fla.); Aaron Lipman	6-30-66
207	Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Welfare Dependent and Low-Income Families	California Dept. of Social Welfare; Robert C. Stone	5-31-66
218	Study of Elderly Persons Who Have Been Released From the State Mental Hospital	North Dakota Public Welfare Board; G. A. Hample	4-30-66
223	The Single Parent Family: Functional Implications of Structural Deviance	Western Reserve University (Ohio); Jetse Sprey	2-28-66
228	Evaluation of the Pilot Project in the Rehabilitation of Dependent Families	Community Services Council of Delaware; Lawrence Schein	12-31-65
230	The Impact of Public Welfare Policies and Operations on Family Organization	University of California; Scott Briar	3-31-67
240	Alcohol Problems and Dependency	Stanford University (Calif.); Sidney Cahn and Thomas Plaut	6-30-67
243	Lower Class Attitudes Toward "Deviant" Actions	Merrill-Palmer Institute, (Detroit); Hyman Rodman	2-28-67
245	Exploratory Study of Research Related to Undergraduate Education in Social Welfare	Council on Social Work Education (New York City); Arnulf Pinns	2-28-66
246	Determinants of the Geographic Mobility of Labor	University of Michigan; John Lansing and Eva Mueller	12-31-65
249	Developing a Comparative Measure of Family Interaction	University of Massachusetts; George Levinger	8-31-66
252	Evaluation of Present Methods for Determining Assistance Grants for ADC and OAA Recipients in Iowa	Iowa State University; Margaret Liston and Ross Wilbur	5-31-66
255	Factors Affecting Life Earnings Profiles of Nonwhite in the U.S.	University of Florida; Marshall Colberg	6-30-66
259	Study of Families on AFDC-UP Programs: Further Analysis of Eastern Kentucky Data	University of Kentucky; Cyrus Johnson	5-31-66
260	Professionalization of Social Welfare Occupations	University of Michigan; Henry J. Meyer	7-31-66
262	Problems of Data-Collection from Low-Income Families	Columbia University (New York City); Allen H. Barton	8-31-66
264	Enhancing Work Skills and Parental Roles of Unemployed Fathers	Hospital and Welfare Board of Hillsborough County (Fla.); Dorothy M. Johnson	5-31-68
266	Changing Patterns of Income at Retirement from the Labor Force	University of Wisconsin; Martin David and Harold Groves	6-30-67
267	A Study of Uses Made of Lump-Sum and Monthly Benefits by Survivors of UAW Active Workers	Michigan Health and Social Security Research Institute, Inc. (Detroit); Thomas C. Barton	3-31-67
268	Multi-Agency Integration and Change	Western Reserve University (Ohio); Eleanor Caplan	7-31-68
269	Early Retirement and Other Uses of Nonwork Time as Related to Economic Growth in Certain Western European Countries	Duke University (Durham, N.C.); Juanita Kreps	8-31-66

Publications of Interest*

WELFARE ADMINISTRATION

A CONSTRUCTIVE PUBLIC WELFARE PROGRAM. WA Pub. No. 9. Welfare Administration, 1965. 23 pp. 25 cents. Discusses how to develop public welfare departments that will help to prevent poverty and other social problems. Describes recently enacted Federal legislation to aid States and communities. Numerous examples and illustrations are used to set forth the problems and the possible services.

MAJOR FEDERAL LEGISLATION AFFECTING SOCIAL WELFARE, 1961-1965. Welfare Administration, 1965. Summarizes major provisions of the principal Federal acts.

CHARACTERISTICS OF STATE PUBLIC ASSISTANCE PLANS UNDER THE SOCIAL SECURITY ACT: GENERAL PROVISIONS--ELIGIBILITY, ASSISTANCE, ADMINISTRATION. 1964 edition. Public Assistance Report No. 50. Bureau of Family Services, 1965. 116 pp. 65 cents. State-by-State presentation of basic characteristics.

QUALITY CONTROL IN PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. Bureau of Family Services, March 1965. 7 pp. Describes the administrative system that enables State public assistance agencies to determine whether local agencies' actions on eligibility and amount of payment are in accordance with State and Federal policy.

CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS OF THE NATION'S WORKING MOTHERS, 1965: A PRELIMINARY REPORT. Children's Bureau and Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. 1965. 14 pp.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON DAY CARE SERVICES. Compiled and annotated by Alice H. Merriam. Children's Bureau, 1965. 94 pp.

DAY CARE SERVICES: WHY? WHAT? WHERE? WHEN? HOW? Children's Bureau Publication 420. 1964. 44 pp. 25 cents. Addressed to parents and citizens, this pamphlet explains why day care services for children are needed; what these services are; where and how they should be developed; and what supplementary and supportive services should be associated with them.

FEDERAL ASSISTANCE FOR PROJECTS IN AGING: Training Programs of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Public Health Service. OA No. 707. Office of Aging, April 1965. 10 pp. Concisely describes the NCHD programs which provide financial assistance for professional training in fields related to research on adult development and aging.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

GRANTS-IN-AID AND OTHER FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS ADMINISTERED BY THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. 1964-65 edition. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965. 345 pp. $2.50. The purpose, financing, methods of distribution, legal basis, and other characteristics of the HEW programs of financial assistance are systematically presented.

HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE TRENDS. Part 1, National Trends. 1964 edition. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965. Presents national annual data on programs and current social, demographic, and economic developments.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING: THE BRIDGE BETWEEN MAN AND HIS WORK. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, April 1, 1965. 61 pp. 45 cents. Third annual report of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to the Congress on training activities under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.

REFERENCE FACTS ON HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, January 1965. 80 pp. 30 cents. Statistics and summary background information on conditions and programs, in pocket-sized format.

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE: TOO MUCH OR TOO LITTLE? By Duncan M. MacIntyre. New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., December 1964. 86 pp. Single copies free to New York residents; $2 per copy for other orders. First in a series titled "The Dimensions of Poverty and Its Remedies" providing background information for the interested layman. Chapters on historical development of public assistance, how it works, national trends, and answers to questions most commonly posed by the public.

FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW, March 1965. Special issue on low-income families. Subjects include family expenditures, installment debt, housing, job opportunities, the Economic Opportunity Act, and table of consumer prices.

*U.S. Government publications for which prices are listed may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (25 percent discount on lots of 100 or more). Inquiries or orders for other publications should be directed to the publisher or issuing agency.

Program and Operating Statistics

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE IN MARCH 1965

About 8.3 million persons were assisted under the six public assistance programs[1] in March--an increase of roughly 100,000 from the February total. All programs shared in the increase, and except for aid to the blind at least half the States reported an increase for each program.

In March the number of recipients of aid to families with dependent children increased 67,800 (1.5 percent); of this rise, 14,600 was in the unemployed-parent segment. Payments under medical assistance for the aged were reported in behalf of 246,900 persons--16,600 more than in February. The number of recipients of general assistance rose 7,400 (0.9 percent), and those under aid to the permanently and totally disabled increased 6,100 (1.1 percent).

There were relatively slight increases in the numbers of recipients of old-age assistance and aid to the blind. For the latter program, however, 34 States reported a decrease or no change from February.

Total expenditures for assistance, including vendor payments for medical care, were $460.8 million in March--$14.3 million more than in February. Payments for aid to families with dependent children rose $5.4 million, and a larger volume of vendor payments for aged persons under old-age assistance and medical assistance for the aged combined accounted for $5.3 million. All programs experienced increases in both money payments and vendor payments for medical care.

Increases in three large States had a considerable impact on the national changes in payments for some programs. New York was responsible for half the national increase in aid to families with dependent children and for 40 percent of the rise in payments for medical assistance for the aged. These changes reflected, in part, the effect of the processing of a backlog of applications and bills which accumulated during the recent strike by employees in New York City, which ended in February. For aid to the permanently and totally disabled, California and Illinois each accounted for more than a fourth of the rise in total payments.

A few States took action to revise individual money payments during the month. Colorado made possible an increase of $1 per recipient of old-age assistance, aid to the blind, and aid to the permanently and totally disabled, and in aid to families with dependent children raised from 72 to 75 percent the proportion of requirements met by assistance and other income. In Massachusetts, $1 was added to the allowance for a home or office visit by a chiropodist, podiatrist, or physiotherapist.

---

[1] Data for specified types of assistance under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged are classified with data for separate State programs for old-age assistance, aid to the blind, aid to the permanently and totally disabled, or medical assistance for the aged.

Table 1. Number of recipients of public assistance in the United States, by month, March 1964-March 1965 1/

[Except for general assistance, includes cases receiving only vendor payments for medical care]

Year and month	Old-age assistance 2/	Medical assistance for the aged 2/	Aid to the blind 2/	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled 2/	Aid to families with dependent children			General assistance 4/	
					Families	Total recipients 3/	Children	Cases	Recipients
	Number of recipients								
1964									
March	2,188,610	172,736	97,760	490,156	1,013,313	4,206,817	3,148,698	373,000	913,000
April	2,186,709	176,311	97,631	493,971	1,023,498	4,261,965	3,188,173	360,000	845,000
May	2,184,945	180,956	97,574	497,402	1,021,623	4,253,536	3,183,929	335,000	746,000
June	2,182,037	187,021	97,408	501,426	1,014,109	4,214,809	3,159,402	326,000	708,000
July	2,177,074	185,537	97,259	508,895	1,009,194	4,191,200	3,142,795	321,000	700,000
August	2,167,588	207,386	97,066	511,595	1,005,821	4,175,979	3,132,370	323,000	712,000
September	2,162,386	208,358	96,853	514,938	1,003,466	4,164,828	3,126,988	321,000	702,000
October	2,160,922	220,783	96,586	519,070	1,005,880	4,174,728	3,138,039	319,000	691,000
November	2,161,446	217,336	96,416	521,789	1,010,016	4,195,113	3,152,468	322,000	702,000
December	2,158,994	226,728	96,438	527,503	1,029,936	4,289,028	3,218,301	346,000	778,000
1965									
January	2,154,581	229,833	96,155	534,607	1,046,960	4,371,872	3,274,801	352,000	806,000
February	2,150,290	230,342	95,834	534,282	1,056,145	4,424,029	3,311,726	352,000	801,000
March	2,151,542	246,867	96,194	540,394	1,073,033	4,491,840	3,360,553	359,000	808,000
	Percentage change from previous month								
1964									
March	(5/)	+7.6	+0.1	+0.8	+1.4	+1.6	+1.6	(6/)	-2.1
April	-0.1	+2.1	-.1	+.8	+1.0	+1.3	+1.3	-3.6	-7.5
May	-.1	+2.6	-.1	+.7	-.2	-.2	-.1	-6.9	-11.6
June	-.1	+3.4	-.2	+.8	-.7	-.9	-.8	-2.9	-5.1
July	-.2	-.8	-.2	+1.5	-.5	-.6	-.5	-1.5	-1.2
August	-.4	+11.8	-.2	+.5	-.3	-.4	-.3	+.8	+1.8
September	-.2	+.5	-.2	+.7	-.2	-.3	-.2	-.6	-1.4
October	-.1	+6.0	-.3	+.8	+.2	+.2	+.4	-.8	-1.6
November	(5/)	-1.6	-.2	+.5	+.4	+.5	+.5	+1.1	+1.6
December	-.1	+4.3	(5/)	+1.1	+2.0	+2.2	+2.1	+7.3	+10.9
1965									
January	-.2	+1.4	-.3	+1.3	+1.7	+1.9	+1.8	+1.8	+3.6
February	-.2	+.2	-.3	-.1	+.9	+1.2	+1.1	+.3	-.6
March	+.1	+7.2	+.4	+1.1	+1.6	+1.5	+1.5	+1.8	+.9

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Represents data for recipients of the specified type of assistance under separate State programs and under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 4/ Partly estimated. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 2. Amount of public assistance payments in the United States, by month, March 1964-March 1965 1/

[Except for general assistance, includes vendor payments for medical care]

Year and month	Total 2/	Old-age assistance 3/	Medical assistance for the aged 3/	Aid to the blind 3/	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled 3/	Aid to families with dependent children	General assistance 4/
	Amount of assistance						
1964							
March	$424,742,000	$172,520,773	$34,679,610	$8,140,935	$38,241,308	$136,836,208	$25,144,000
April	427,751,000	171,442,862	36,533,311	8,167,521	38,683,080	139,563,179	24,063,000
May	422,752,000	171,194,291	35,220,765	8,200,759	38,975,829	138,443,298	21,838,000
June	422,681,000	171,135,263	36,835,583	8,188,807	39,365,811	137,028,262	21,063,000
July	423,372,000	171,666,857	36,263,042	8,218,116	40,135,368	137,360,488	21,082,000
August	422,204,000	168,196,378	39,228,163	8,198,173	39,874,356	136,270,529	20,926,000
September	423,629,000	168,527,705	38,263,807	8,179,619	40,478,606	137,613,993	21,238,000
October	434,067,000	170,460,876	43,739,320	8,237,442	41,283,107	139,484,356	21,674,000
November	428,290,000	168,957,670	39,963,969	8,194,037	41,292,179	139,295,652	21,319,000
December	444,769,000	170,334,474	44,140,554	8,274,220	42,522,111	145,179,376	23,718,000
1965							
January	442,173,000	169,148,818	43,844,631	8,275,344	42,486,101	145,746,099	23,191,000
February	446,479,000	170,186,480	42,507,140	8,267,896	43,300,253	148,891,297	23,444,000
March	460,815,000	172,509,810	45,585,652	8,372,511	45,391,949	154,259,384	24,294,000
	Percentage change from previous month						
1964							
March	+2.4	+0.7	+9.2	+0.8	+2.4	+3.1	+0.8
April	+.7	-.6	+5.3	+.3	+1.2	+2.0	-4.3
May	-1.2	-.1	-3.6	+.4	+.8	-.8	-9.2
June	(5/)	(5/)	+4.6	-.1	+1.0	-1.0	-3.6
July	+.2	+.3	-1.6	+.4	+2.0	+.2	+.1
August	-.3	-2.0	+8.2	-.2	-.7	-.8	-.7
September	+.3	+.2	-2.5	-.2	+1.5	+1.0	+1.5
October	+2.5	+1.1	+14.3	+.7	+2.0	+1.4	+2.1
November	-1.3	-.9	-8.6	-.5	(6/)	-.1	-1.6
December	+3.8	+.8	+10.5	+1.0	+3.0	+4.2	+11.3
1965							
January	-.6	-.7	-.7	(6/)	-.1	+.4	-2.2
February	+1.0	+.6	-3.1	-.1	+1.9	+2.2	+1.1
March	+3.2	+1.4	+7.2	+1.3	+4.8	+3.6	+3.6

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Total exceeds sum of columns because of inclusion of vendor payments for medical care from general assistance funds and from special medical funds; data for such expenditures partly estimated for some States. 3/ Represents data for payments to recipients of the specified type of assistance under separate State programs and under State programs for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 4/ Partly estimated. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 5/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 3. Old-age assistance: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

/Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments/

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	February 1965 in--		March 1964 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total 2/...	2,151,542	$172,509,810	$80.18	+0.1	+1.4	-1.7	(3/)
Ala.....	111,732	7,711,038	69.01	+.2	+1.9	+2.2	+2.8
Alaska 4/.....	1,381	5/ 145,069	105.05	+1.0	+15.4	-1.4	+16.7
Ariz.....	13,193	837,786	63.50	(6/)	+.3	-1.1	+1.0
Ark.....	59,113	3,882,947	65.69	+.3	+5.7	+2.3	+8.7
Calif.....	273,227	30,603,664	112.01	+.3	+.8	+.7	+1.6
Colo. 2/.....	44,117	4,248,550	96.30	+1.0	+1.3	-10.1	-13.9
Conn.....	6,975	572,946	82.14	-.1	+1.7	-11.9	-11.5
Del.....	1,421	103,246	72.66	+1.0	-3.9	+16.6	+34.1
Dist. of Col...	2,382	205,832	86.41	+1.4	-.3	-1.7	-9.1
Fla. 4/.....	73,414	4,840,285	65.93	+.1	-.5	+2.8	+2.2
Ga.....	91,984	5,363,149	58.31	(3/)	+2.1	+.1	+2.6
Guam.....	156	5,238	33.58	+.6	+2.1	-6.0	+4.3
Hawaii 4/.....	1,185	96,511	81.44	+.2	+10.9	+2.7	+4.5
Idaho.....	4,360	351,474	80.61	-.7	+8.8	-9.3	-.9
Ill. 4/.....	55,910	5,922,174	105.92	-.4	+12.6	-6.1	+13.2
Ind.....	22,745	1,974,763	86.82	+.1	+4.2	-2.3	+6.0
Iowa.....	27,273	2,551,335	93.55	-.6	-.5	-6.3	-4.7
Kans. 4/.....	21,864	2,142,015	97.97	+.1	+7.6	-2.8	+5.8
Ky. 4/.....	58,583	3,682,104	62.85	(6/)	-2.9	+4.2	+8.5
La.....	130,858	11,117,087	84.96	(6/)	-.1	+.7	+1.4
Maine 4/.....	10,885	897,714	82.47	-.5	-.6	-2.6	-4.1
Md. 4/.....	9,932	730,265	73.53	+.4	+.5	+5.1	+7.3
Mass.....	52,586	4,820,482	91.67	+.2	+2.4	-4.5	-3.0
Mich.....	48,771	4,588,031	94.07	-.7	-4.5	-2.6	+8.2
Minn.....	32,039	2,784,546	86.91	-.4	+3.4	-25.9	-43.8
Miss.....	73,051	2,909,526	39.83	(3/)	+1.4	-2.0	-.6
Mo.....	102,287	7,109,515	69.51	+.2	+4.3	-1.8	+1.6
Mont.....	5,265	380,259	72.22	+.4	+.8	-5.9	-5.5
Nebr.....	12,447	1,162,908	93.43	-.5	+.2	-2.1	-1.3
Nev.....	2,632	232,406	88.30	+.3	-1.2	+3.0	+3.6
N. H.....	4,406	446,347	101.30	+.2	-.3	-2.1	-2.0
N. J.....	13,821	1,191,869	86.24	-.1	-.7	-1.2	+6.1
N. Mex. 4/.....	10,313	801,398	77.71	-.3	-3.0	-4.1	+.1
N. Y. 4/.....	56,607	5,498,194	97.13	+1.2	+7.0	+.5	+4.9
N. C.....	42,709	2,578,435	60.37	+.1	+.5	-2.4	(3/)
N. Dak. 4/.....	5,159	498,578	96.64	(3/)	-6.8	-5.9	+1.5
Ohio.....	82,394	7,152,957	86.81	(3/)	+.3	-4.2	-.1
Okla. 4/.....	82,735	7,959,141	96.20	0	-.2	-1.1	-7.4
Oreg.....	10,292	735,045	71.42	+.1	-.1	-10.2	-5.6
Pa.....	46,173	3,722,720	80.63	+.3	+2.5	-2.1	+7.5
P. R. 4/.....	30,437	290,551	9.55	-.7	-.3	-6.9	-5.9
R. I. 4/.....	5,861	557,611	95.14	-.5	-.2	-2.3	+8.8
S. C.....	25,508	1,405,839	55.11	-.1	+5.6	-3.6	-.2
S. Dak.....	7,065	603,807	85.46	-.6	(3/)	-3.8	(6/)
Tenn.....	44,722	2,568,892	57.44	-.1	-.2	-2.9	+5.3
Tex.....	230,241	16,082,025	69.85	(3/)	-.4	+.6	+.6
Utah.....	4,789	332,632	69.46	-.8	+.5	-7.1	-7.0
Vt. 4/.....	5,438	464,902	85.49	+.6	+1.5	-.6	+.5
V. I.....	436	17,705	40.61	-1.8	-2.6	-7.8	+9.5
Va.....	13,173	844,499	64.11	-.4	-.5	-1.8	+2.3
Wash.....	32,682	2,792,541	85.45	(6/)	+6.2	-4.7	+1.2
W. Va.....	14,010	700,283	49.98	-.7	-.5	-5.9	-4.0
Wis.....	28,373	3,080,721	108.58	-.7	-3.6	-4.5	+.1
Wyo.....	2,430	210,253	86.52	-.7	-5.0	-5.7	-5.3

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes 3,859 recipients aged 60-64 in Colorado and payments of $338,136 to these recipients. Such payments were made without Federal participation. 3/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 4/ Represents aid to the aged under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled, or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 5/ In addition, supplemental payments from general assistance funds were made to recipients. 6/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 4. Medical assistance for the aged: Recipients and payments for recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

State	Number of recipients 2/	Payments for recipients		Percentage change from February 1965	
		Total amount	Average	Number	Amount
Total	246,867	$45,585,652	$184.66	+7.2	+7.2
Ala	268	85,199	317.91	+9.4	+20.3
Ark	3,105	200,027	64.42	+5.6	+23.9
Calif	30,317	8,430,714	278.09	+6.5	+2.4
Colo	3/ 4,500	4/ 891,442	---	---	---
Conn	6,931	4/ 1,276,620	184.19	+7.0	-.2
Del	75	10,737	143.16	(5/)	(5/)
D. C	870	268,923	309.11	+121.4	+180.0
Fla. 6/	960	312,343	325.36	+39.5	+31.0
Guam	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)
Hawaii 6/	496	114,894	231.64	-29.3	-30.2
Idaho	2,584	415,705	160.88	+18.9	+25.1
Ill. 6/	1,529	609,976	398.94	+9.5	+1.7
Ind	38	4,864	(5/)	(8/)	(8/)
Iowa	8,120	578,343	71.22	+4.1	+1.3
Kans. 6/	2,895	4/ 441,493	152.50	+7.0	+11.2
Ky. 6/	9,657	377,302	39.07	-4.8	-6.4
La	563	109,216	193.99	+5.6	+17.6
Maine 6/	513	131,334	256.01	+40.9	+48.1
Md. 3/ 6/	10,800	428,000	---	---	---
Mass	29,511	4/ 5,353,510	181.41	+4.8	+12.5
Mich	5,663	1,974,975	348.75	-2.2	-16.6
Minn	13,300	4/ 2,596,777	195.25	+2.8	+.4
Nebr	267	93,133	348.81	-8.2	-4.3
N. H	1,672	84,609	50.60	+16.7	+15.7
N. J	5,308	4/ 1,278,910	240.94	-.1	-1.6
N. Y. 6/	35,445	4/ 10,878,296	306.91	+6.8	+12.7
N. C	791	234,610	296.60	+31.0	+27.4
N. Dak. 6/	9/ 1,307	4/ 284,132	217.39	0	-.6
Okla. 6/	1,135	167,571	147.64	+8.4	+2.7
Oreg	4,225	633,009	149.82	+4.1	+2.7
Pa	11,621	3,040,185	261.61	+14.2	+22.5
P. R. 6/	4,667	129,507	27.75	+50.4	+32.2
R. I. 6/	3,924	497,447	126.77	+258.0	+121.1
S. C	1,407	267,223	189.92	+48.7	+46.4
S. Dak	564	26,760	47.45	+3.5	-1.5
Tenn	8,066	289,005	35.83	-3.5	-2.5
Utah	2,273	231,224	101.73	+.4	-9.0
Vt. 6/	159	40,880	257.11	+27.2	-7.6
V. I	67	2,718	40.57	-35.0	+125.4
Va	2,808	196,364	69.93	+9.7	-3.8
Wash	10,183	1,369,708	134.51	+2.9	-8.2
W. Va	12,791	407,665	31.87	+11.9	+22.0
Wis	5,453	797,609	146.27	+10.0	+2.8
Wyo	39	22,693	(7/)	(7/)	(7/)

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Persons for whom vendor payments were made during the report month. 3/ Estimated. 4/ Includes money payments not subject to Federal participation as follows: $25,813 in Colorado, $26 in Connecticut, $11,055 in Kansas, $96,368 in Massachusetts, $35,603 in Minnesota, $8,035 in New Jersey, $51,904 in New York, and $2,947 in North Dakota. 5/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 6/ Represents medical assistance for the aged under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled and medical assistance for the aged. 7/ Program in operation but no payments made in March. 8/ No payments made in February. 9/ Includes an unknown number of cases receiving only money payments.

Table 5. Aid to the blind: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	February 1965 in--		March 1964 in--	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total 2/.....	96,194	$8,372,511	$87.04	+0.4	+1.3	-1.6	+2.8
Ala.....	1,840	126,109	68.54	+.9	+.4	+6.4	+29.4
Alaska 3/.....	110	9,066	82.42	0	+.5	+6.8	+14.4
Ariz.....	818	58,405	71.40	-.1	+.2	-2.2	-2.8
Ark.....	1,922	139,554	72.61	-.4	+3.1	-2.7	+4.8
Calif. 2/.....	12,499	1,747,019	139.77	+1.0	+.8	+.1	+7.6
Colo.....	250	21,217	84.87	-.4	-1.4	-2.7	-7.0
Conn.....	308	33,050	107.31	-.3	-12.6	-1.0	-10.5
Del.....	306	27,351	89.38	+3.0	+4.9	+3.4	+16.1
D. C.....	203	15,292	75.33	0	-4.7	+4.6	+8.0
Fla. 3/.....	2,591	175,045	67.56	(4/)	-2.2	+1.0	+1.3
Ga.....	3,189	191,601	60.08	-.2	+.3	+.9	+2.1
Guam.....	7	235	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)
Hawaii 3/.....	76	9,228	121.42	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)
Idaho.....	135	10,163	75.28	-1.5	-1.7	+4.7	+7.4
Ill. 3/.....	2,447	259,960	106.24	-.5	+12.2	-6.6	+11.0
Ind.....	1,780	164,419	92.37	+.2	+10.8	-.8	+10.0
Iowa.....	1,150	115,823	100.72	0	-1.0	-6.2	-6.8
Kans. 3/.....	508	50,211	98.84	-1.4	+3.7	+ 8	+13.0
Ky. 3/.....	2,495	176,209	70.62	+.2	-2.8	+2.7	+4.3
La.....	2,771	225,452	81.36	-.1	-.1	-2.2	-1.7
Maine 3/.....	308	25,559	82.98	+.3	+.8	-15.4	-16.6
Md. 3/.....	388	31,597	81.44	+.3	+.4	-4.7	-1.0
Mass.....	2,281	323,422	141.79	(6/)	+6.5	-.7	+5.0
Mich.....	1,663	154,032	92.62	-.7	-4.0	-1.8	+4.7
Minn.....	1,040	118,451	113.90	-.5	+2.4	-3.9	-5.6
Miss.....	2,624	118,545	45.18	-.5	+1.1	-12.5	-10.7
Mo. 2/.....	4,410	330,750	75.00	-.2	-.2	-3.5	-3.5
Mont.....	251	21,648	86.25	+.4	-.1	-4.6	+.8
Nebr.....	631	71,506	113.32	+.8	+4.1	-5.7	+.2
Nev.....	159	18,145	114.12	+1.9	+1.7	-5.9	-9.1
N. H.....	265	28,508	107.58	-.8	+.9	+1.5	+5.7
N. J.....	928	81,849	88.20	-.3	-.5	-1.4	+2.3
N. Mex. 3/.....	345	32,450	94.06	0	-2.1	+1.2	+6.1
N. Y. 3/.....	3,116	373,262	119.79	+.7	+8.2	-3.4	+1.8
N. C.....	4,970	340,097	68.43	-.1	-1.7	-1.8	+2.8
N. Dak. 3/.....	81	6,804	84.00	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)
Ohio.....	3,612	286,342	79.28	+10.3	+4.0	+6.4	+4.2
Okla.....	1,637	200,271	122.34	-.2	(6/)	-3.5	-.8
Oreg.....	463	41,394	89.40	+2.2	+.1	+12.1	+24.1
Pa. 2/.....	17,555	1,333,012	75.93	-.5	-.3	-1.8	+.4
P. R. 3/.....	1,395	11,859	8.50	-.2	(6/)	-8.7	-7.4
R. I. 3/.....	101	9,800	97.03	0	+4.4	-1.0	+11.4
S. C.....	1,855	119,898	64.64	+.5	+4.0	+6.2	+9.0
S. Dak.....	113	8,071	71.42	-2.6	(6/)	-13.1	-9.6
Tenn.....	2,111	117,105	55.47	-.4	-1.1	-7.2	-.9
Tex.....	4,714	327,892	69.56	-.6	-.6	-2.2	-1.9
Utah.....	165	11,411	69.16	-1.8	-5.6	-4.1	-12.5
Vt. 3/.....	121	8,875	73.35	+.8	+.5	+7.1	-3.7
V. I.....	15	602	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)
Va.....	1,146	80,096	69.89	+.9	-.1	+.9	+.4
Wash.....	679	63,471	93.48	+1.5	+8.5	+1.0	+3.1
W. Va.....	792	38,051	48.04	-.1	+.1	-5.3	-5.0
Wis.....	798	77,128	96.65	+.4	-1.7	-1.8	-2.4
Wyo.....	57	5,199	91.21	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)	(5/)

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Data include recipients of payments made without Federal participation and payments to these recipients as follows: California, $23,664 to 149 recipients; Missouri, $52,217 to 682 recipients; and Pennsylvania, $932,047 to 12,766 recipients. 3/ Represents aid to the blind under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 4/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 5/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 6/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 6. Aid to the permanently and totally disabled: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of recipients	Payments to recipients		Percentage change from--			
		Total amount	Average	February 1965 in--		March 1964	
				Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Total	540,394	$45,391,949	$84.00	+1.1	+4.8	+10.2	+18.7
Ala.	14,847	691,184	46.55	+.2	-.4	+4.7	+5.1
Alaska 2/	208	32,404	155.79	+2.0	+42.5	+52.9	+149.5
Ariz.	3,480	234,034	67.25	+2.1	+2.0	+29.4	+28.5
Ark.	9,546	592,412	62.06	+.4	+5.3	+4.5	+12.4
Calif.	66,998	7,956,935	118.76	+4.1	+8.0	+48.1	+49.4
Colo.	6,054	466,728	77.09	+.2	+1.5	+.7	+4.4
Conn.	8,046	623,708	77.52	+1.1	-4.6	+15.4	+28.5
Del.	434	33,359	76.86	-1.4	-.1	-.7	+6.2
D. C.	3,281	270,326	82.39	+1.5	+1.2	+7.9	+14.4
Fla. 2/	17,415	1,227,728	70.50	+.3	+.7	+10.6	+9.6
Ga.	26,969	1,672,506	62.02	(3/)	+2.4	+5.0	+7.4
Guam	44	1,332	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)
Hawaii 2/	1,076	136,204	126.58	-6.5	-10.1	+1.9	-1.1
Idaho	3,063	173,840	56.75	+.9	+.9	+14.5	+14.2
Ill. 2/	29,432	3,377,508	114.76	+.8	+19.9	+5.5	+30.9
Ind.	1,496	183,150	122.43	+2.9	-2.7	+57.5	+74.6
Iowa	1,258	103,666	82.41	+.6	+1.4	+15.4	+15.5
Kans. 2/	5,031	590,842	117.44	+.5	+3.9	+11.9	+19.9
Ky. 2/	10,945	842,117	76.94	+.9	-.1	+13.0	+15.6
La.	19,481	1,143,247	58.69	-.2	-.1	+4.4	+5.9
Maine 2/	2,271	203,059	89.41	+.2	+.4	+1.7	+3.9
Md. 2/	7,791	622,551	79.91	+.7	+.8	+7.8	+11.9
Mass.	12,854	1,963,076	152.72	+1.9	+12.6	+12.0	+21.4
Mich.	10,520	1,087,381	103.36	+3.7	-5.1	+43.6	+40.6
Minn.	3,812	234,561	61.53	+.9	+1.0	+13.1	+13.2
Miss.	18,678	810,011	43.37	+.7	+.6	+11.4	+10.8
Mo.	15,180	1,101,346	72.55	+.5	+3.6	+3.9	+7.3
Mont.	1,375	109,046	79.31	+1.3	+2.2	+8.0	+8.9
Nebr.	2,691	268,766	99.88	+1.3	+5.4	+10.3	+18.5
N. H.	623	72,124	115.77	+2.3	+27.0	+11.6	+13.9
N. J.	8,722	863,852	99.04	+.3	+1.1	+6.5	+10.3
N. Mex. 2/	3,807	343,284	90.17	+1.4	-.8	+8.0	+14.0
N. Y. 2/	35,403	4,689,010	132.45	+2.0	+7.0	+.7	+5.8
N. C.	22,448	1,625,259	72.40	+2.6	+11.3	+4.7	+10.1
N. Dak. 2/	1,672	209,088	125.05	+2.4	-.7	+18.0	+30.4
Ohio	19,265	1,608,251	83.48	-1.2	+4.6	+4.3	+15.0
Okla. 2/	14,410	1,612,027	111.87	+2.0	+1.7	+13.2	+16.8
Oreg.	8,140	555,027	68.19	+1.1	(5/)	+5.3	+15.2
Pa.	20,768	1,589,274	76.53	+1.1	-.1	+6.5	+22.8
P. R. 2/	20,870	180,862	8.67	-.1	+.3	-2.8	-2.0
R. I. 2/	2,849	270,150	94.82	+.2	+.1	+3.8	+8.5
S. C.	8,928	498,766	55.87	+.2	+5.5	+5.5	+8.5
S. Dak.	1,113	77,725	69.83	0	+.7	+1.7	+2.3
Tenn.	13,262	721,739	54.42	+.4	+.3	+6.1	+14.9
Tex.	9,775	558,076	57.09	+.1	(5/)	+8.2	+7.8
Utah	4,972	343,201	69.03	-.7	+2.0	+6.1	+7.4
Vt. 2/	1,233	97,868	79.37	+1.4	+5.2	+18.7	+5.7
V. I.	75	2,967	39.56	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)	(4/)
Va.	6,895	479,757	69.58	+.2	+1.2	+3.6	+10.2
Wash.	18,164	1,169,602	64.39	+.1	+6.1	-1.8	+5.2
W. Va.	6,259	296,630	47.39	+7.3	-.6	-.2	-6.0
Wis.	5,798	719,578	124.11	-7.2	-5.7	+1.0	+12.7
Wyo.	667	54,805	82.17	+2.0	-6.2	+6.4	+4.1

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Represents aid to the permanently and totally disabled under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 4/ Average payment not computed on fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 7. Aid to families with dependent children: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of families	Number of recipients		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
					Average per--		Feb. 1965 in--		March 1964 in--	
		Total 2/	Children	Total amount	Family	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total.....	1,073,033	4,491,840	3,360,553	$154,259,384	$143.76	$34.34	+1.5	+3.6	+6.8	+12.7
Ala. 3/.....	18,515	75,597	59,765	892,654	48.21	11.81	-.6	-.4	-18.1	-17.5
Alaska 3/.....	1,327	4,847	3,706	169,311	127.59	34.93	+2.5	+3.9	+1.8	+3.5
Ariz. 3/.....	9,509	40,645	30,704	1,155,390	121.50	28.43	+.1	+.1	-3.7	-4.5
Ark.....	7,418	30,942	23,283	531,125	71.60	17.17	+1.9	+5.0	+8.2	+9.1
Calif. 3/ 4/...	140,032	578,475	425,526	25,830,950	184.46	44.65	+3.0	+2.9	+24.6	+22.3
Colo.....	11,053	42,990	33,287	1,614,844	146.10	37.56	+1.1	+4.7	+7.0	+8.7
Conn. 4/.....	15,109	60,800	44,223	2,821,221	186.72	46.40	+1.4	+.5	+5.5	+7.9
Del. 4/.....	2,923	13,508	10,188	381,187	130.41	28.22	+2.2	+2.4	+7.2	+37.2
Dist of Col....	4,295	20,624	16,646	675,077	157.18	32.73	+1.5	+1.4	+8.4	+8.5
Fla.....	27,931	106,930	85,901	1,716,582	61.46	16.05	+.1	+.1	+3.7	+3.5
Ga.....	18,350	74,423	57,053	1,646,365	89.75	22.13	+1.5	+1.6	+19.1	+15.4
Guam.....	131	674	560	10,707	81.73	15.89	+6.0	-2.3	+.4	+22.9
Hawaii 4/.....	3,254	14,161	10,470	500,140	153.70	35.32	+.5	-3.1	+.9	-.5
Idaho.....	2,688	10,362	7,544	401,043	149.20	38.70	+2.0	+2.1	-1.3	-2.7
Ill. 3/ 4/.....	56,864	268,783	206,871	12,778,226	224.72	47.54	+1.6	+7.7	-.8	+7.9
Ind. 3/.....	11,972	48,920	36,615	1,448,714	121.01	29.61	+1.4	+3.7	+3.0	+5.8
Iowa.....	11,077	44,436	32,308	1,732,654	156.42	38.99	+1.0	+1.9	+8.7	+29.8
Kans. 3/ 4/....	9,095	38,503	29,392	1,548,240	170.23	40.21	+2.5	+5.6	+13.6	+19.5
Ky. 3/.....	21,028	82,114	59,062	2,021,332	96.13	24.62	(5/)	-5.7	+7.2	+6.3
La. 3/.....	24,211	106,148	80,551	2,461,912	101.69	23.19	+1.3	+.5	+4.3	+4.9
Maine.....	5,278	19,237	14,177	555,232	105.20	28.86	+.1	+.3	-3.8	-4.8
Md. 3/ 4/.....	19,909	85,047	65,342	2,858,029	143.55	33.61	+2.2	+3.2	+20.3	+23.8
Mass. 4/.....	25,732	97,045	72,543	4,710,359	183.05	48.54	+2.3	+3.0	+11.4	+12.6
Mich. 3/ 4/....	40,561	167,840	123,589	5,935,697	146.34	35.37	+1.1	-.7	+29.9	+23.9
Minn. 3/.....	14,077	51,609	40,213	2,762,382	196.23	53.53	+1.3	+7.1	+11.5	+16.2
Miss.....	20,740	82,850	66,311	823,585	39.71	9.94	+.5	+.6	+1.4	+5.4
Mo. 3/.....	26,434	108,260	82,788	2,639,113	99.84	24.38	+1.0	+1.9	+1.6	+3.0
Mont.....	1,839	7,353	5,678	266,756	145.05	36.28	+3.4	+3.7	+2.5	+6.1
Nebr.....	4,077	16,604	12,794	518,017	127.06	31.20	+.7	+.1	+12.0	+15.0
Nev.....	1,315	5,415	4,284	167,990	127.75	31.02	+3.5	+3.1	+13.8	+12.8
N. H.....	1,121	4,673	3,496	207,281	184.91	44.36	+3.5	+5.3	+6.2	+8.7
N. J.....	26,925	106,465	80,690	5,296,649	196.72	49.75	+1.1	+1.7	+9.5	+13.2
N. Mex. 3/.....	7,192	29,707	22,625	981,423	136.46	33.04	+.7	-2.4	-4.8	+.3
N. Y. 4/.....	126,279	546,301	399,610	26,688,286	211.34	48.85	+3.1	+11.0	+9.7	+20.5
N. C. 3/.....	27,357	113,849	85,097	2,813,417	102.84	24.71	+2.3	+5.0	-2.8	+.4
N. Dak.....	2,047	8,110	6,173	366,872	179.22	45.24	+3.1	+2.7	+17.1	+28.0
Ohio 4/.....	46,605	198,730	147,008	6,301,460	135.21	31.71	+2.0	+2.3	+27.3	+29.6
Okla. 3/ 4/....	18,795	74,288	55,139	2,411,068	128.28	32.46	+1.6	+1.1	+.9	-6.0
Oreg. 3/ 4/....	8,524	34,502	25,112	1,350,347	158.42	39.14	+3.0	+3.1	+6.7	+10.6
Pa. 4/.....	69,712	309,252	221,746	9,734,429	139.64	31.48	+.5	-1.5	-7.6	+1.5
P. R.....	49,556	199,247	158,941	823,503	16.62	4.13	-1.1	-.2	-4.8	+8.1
R. I. 4/.....	6,107	24,697	18,066	1,013,921	166.03	41.05	-.2	-.3	+1.4	+4.7
S. C.....	7,462	299,34	24,090	487,762	65.37	16.29	+.8	+5.0	-6.8	-6.6
S. Dak.....	3,055	11,418	8,603	360,346	117.95	31.56	+2.1	+2.4	+13.0	+17.6
Tenn. 3/.....	19,186	76,780	58,371	1,731,165	90.23	22.55	+.2	-.1	-.4	+12.0
Tex.....	20,438	93,494	70,516	1,744,600	85.36	18.66	+1.0	+1.1	+5.8	+10.7
Utah. 3/ 4/....	5,652	23,734	17,045	744,577	131.74	31.37	+1.6	-3.1	+9.0	+8.3
Vt.....	1,428	5,491	4,030	163,420	114.44	29.76	+1.3	+1.4	+4.1	+3.2
V. I.....	304	1,155	979	21,650	71.22	18.74	-1.5	-1.9	-3.3	+6.5
Va. 3/.....	10,996	47,119	36,377	1,176,663	107.01	24.97	+1.6	+2.5	+3.0	+7.5
Wash. 3/ 4/....	19,643	81,261	57,298	2,915,826	148.44	35.88	+2.5	+5.1	+10.5	+8.9
W. Va. 3/ 4/...	25,619	118,038	81,501	3,081,838	120.30	26.11	(6/)	+.1	-5.8	-7.9
Wis. 3/.....	11,323	44,757	33,821	2,119,740	187.21	47.36	+.3	-1.9	+.3	(6/)
Wyo.....	963	3,696	2,845	147,807	153.49	39.99	+5.0	+5.0	+9.3	+12.7

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ Includes data on foster-family care; see table 10. 4/ Includes data on unemployed-parent segment; see table 8. 5/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 6/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 8. Aid to families with dependent children, unemployed-parent segment: Recipients and payments to recipients, March 1965 1/

[Includes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of families	Number of recipients		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
		Total 2/	Children	Total	Average per--		February 1965 in--		March 1964 in--	
					Family	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total	83,819	482,042	323,181	$16,053,864	$191.53	$33.30	+3.1	+3.3	+16.0	+19.3
Calif.	18,954	108,046	73,229	4,137,255	218.28	38.29	+4.5	+1.7	+87.1	+72.7
Conn.	2,044	11,686	7,754	375,537	183.73	32.14	+2.4	+.4	-18.9	-22.5
Del.	463	2,860	1,998	76,240	164.67	26.66	+3.5	+4.6	-22.4	-6.2
Hawaii	279	1,817	1,263	52,093	186.71	28.67	-5.5	-9.5	-19.3	-24.7
Ill.	6,891	44,142	30,614	1,923,389	279.12	43.57	+4.7	+9.8	-22.6	-17.1
Kans.	539	3,171	2,112	112,735	209.16	35.55	+4.0	+6.5	+22.1	+33.6
Md.	639	3,706	2,450	108,609	169.97	29.31	-12.3	-11.0	-13.7	-13.4
Mass.	753	4,118	2,751	186,458	247.62	45.28	+1.5	+6.3	-5.5	+30.0
Mich.	4,210	26,551	18,223	807,209	191.74	30.40	+4.4	+1.0	(3/)	(3/)
N. Y.	17,649	101,162	68,259	3,560,933	201.76	35.20	+5.3	+7.4	(4/)	+5.3
Ohio	5,858	33,121	22,082	975,569	166.54	29.45	+8.7	+11.4	(3/)	(3/)
Okla.	34	218	154	5,914	(5/)	(5/)	+52.4	+42.6	+74.4	+55.8
Oreg.	1,208	6,913	4,655	254,899	211.01	36.87	+2.4	+2.6	+2.3	+3.4
Pa.	7,766	43,445	28,469	1,068,388	137.57	24.59	-1.7	-6.2	-33.4	-31.1
R. I.	581	3,393	2,267	115,029	197.98	33.90	-5.7	-4.9	-23.9	-23.1
Utah	1,302	7,134	4,832	120,602	92.63	16.91	+3.2	-2.6	+8.1	+4.6
Wash.	3,948	22,088	14,264	631,647	159.99	28.60	-1.3	-1.9	+5.0	+8.3
W. Va.	10,701	58,471	37,805	1,541,358	144.04	26.36	-.1	(6/)	-8.4	-10.3

1/ Data for this segment of the program, shown separately here, are included in data for the total program. All data subject to revision. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ No program in operation in March 1964. 4/ Increase of less than 0.05 percent. 5/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 families. 6/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 9. Aid to families with dependent children: Recipients and money payments to recipients under community work and training programs, by State, March 1965 1/

State	Number of families with an adult on work and training programs	Number of recipients				Money payments to recipients			
		Total	Adults		Children	Total	For work performed on work and training programs	Average per family	
			On work and training programs	Other				Total	For work performed on work and training programs
Total	27,601	158,0[illegible]5	27,603	24,974	105,428	$4,816,009	$3,334,144	$174.49	$120.80
California	8,481	49,972	8,481	7,301	34,190	1,872,99[illegible]	705,914	220.85	83.23
Illinois	2,745	16,865	2,747	2,446	11,672	600,084	475,762	218.61	173.32
Kansas	127	714	127	123	464	33,348	13,181	262.58	103.79
Maryland	182	1,075	182	178	715	31,498	19,034	173.07	104.58
Michigan	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)
Ohio	3,532	20,350	3,532	3,162	13,656	578,040	528,240	163.66	149.56
Oregon	384	2,270	384	350	1,536	87,398	39,142	227.60	101.93
Pennsylvania	526	3,007	526	526	1,955	94,521	69,711	179.70	132.53
Washington	923	5,281	923	923	3,435	145,600	110,638	157.75	119.87
West Virginia	10,701	58,471	10,701	9,965	37,805	1,372,522	1,372,522	128.26	128.26

1/ Represents data for community work and training programs under plans for such programs submitted under Section 409 of Social Security Act. 2/ Includes as recipients the children and 1 or both parents or 1 caretaker relative other than a parent in families in which the requirements of such adults were considered in determining the amount of assistance. 3/ Data not reported.

Table 10. Aid to families with dependent children receiving foster care: Recipients and payments for foster care, by State, March 1965 1/

State	Number of				Payments for foster care			
	Children receiving foster care			Families from which children were removed	Total amount	Average per child	In foster homes	In institutions
	Total	In foster homes	In institutions					
Total	6,210	2/ 4,861	2/ 263	2,614	$508,365	$81.86	2/$319,504	2/$39,889
Ala.	6	6	0	3	241	(3/)	241	0
Alaska	69	69	0	25	6,577	95.32	6,577	0
Ariz.	189	189	0	69	9,167	48.50	9,167	0
Calif.	1,284	1,157	127	616	124,656	97.08	98,780	25,876
Ill.	1,086	(2/)	(2/)	439	148,972	137.17	(2/)	(2/)
Ind.	147	147	0	47	5,777	39.30	5,777	0
Kans.	90	85	5	36	7,384	82.04	6,825	559
Ky.	31	31	0	10	2,170	(3/)	2,170	0
La.	548	513	35	230	34,422	62.81	30,842	3,580
Md.	593	547	46	202	45,409	76.58	41,753	3,656
Mich.	53	44	9	19	3,611	68.13	2,741	870
Minn.	166	149	17	77	14,515	87.44	10,774	3,741
Mo.	74	74	0	23	2,368	32.00	2,368	0
N. Mex.	45	45	0	12	2,675	(3/)	2,675	0
N. C.	13	13	0	3	518	(3/)	518	0
Okla.	309	309	0	131	13,609	44.04	13,609	0
Oreg.	85	85	0	37	5,707	67.14	5,707	0
Tenn.	263	244	19	85	17,057	64.86	15,757	1,300
Utah	334	334	0	167	16,569	49.61	16,569	0
Va.	53	53	0	19	2,274	42.91	2,274	0
Wash.	589	589	0	282	32,876	55.82	32,876	0
W. Va.	47	42	5	23	3,141	(3/)	2,834	307
Wis.	136	136	0	59	8,670	63.75	8,670	0

1/ Data for this segment of the program, shown separately here, are included in data for the total program. All data subject to revision. 2/ Excludes Illinois; breakdown not available. 3/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 children.

Table 11. General assistance: Recipients and payments to recipients, by State, March 1965 1/

[Excludes vendor payments for medical care and cases receiving only such payments]

State	Number of--		Payments to recipients			Percentage change from--			
				Average per--		February 1965 in--		March 1964 in--	
	Cases	Recipients	Total amount	Case	Recipient	Number of recipients	Amount	Number of recipients	Amount
Total 2/	359,000	808,000	$24,294,000	$67.70	$30.06	+0.9	+3.6	-11.5	-3.4
Ala.	79	79	1,028	13.01	13.01	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)
Alaska	270	978	20,814	77.09	21.28	+13.7	+16.4	+16.0	+14.9
Ariz.	2,268	5,875	119,280	52.59	20.30	+10.1	+1.7	(4/)	+2.7
Ark.	336	1,240	4,643	13.82	3.74	-17.0	-11.2	+2.2	+10.9
Calif.	22,160	37,865	1,313,585	59.28	34.69	-3.0	+2.8	-50.0	-20.8
Colo.	2,608	10,683	151,372	58.04	14.17	-4.5	+1.3	+12.7	+21.7
Conn.	5/ 4,789	5/ 12,166	5/ 331,717	69.27	27.27	+7.0	+5.4	+21.9	+13.3
Del.	1,593	2,963	88,971	55.85	30.03	+1.3	+1.1	-4.3	-7.2
D. C.	807	868	61,888	76.69	71.30	+7.0	+7.8	+27.5	+31.8
Fla. 6/	8,200	(7/)	245,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Ga.	2,699	6,662	76,679	28.41	11.51	+3.6	-.1	+3.5	-4.5
Guam	20	20	853	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)
Hawaii	1,101	1,381	78,764	71.54	57.03	+3.3	+8.2	-1.5	+6.7
Ill.	30,150	65,984	2,382,966	79.04	36.11	+1.6	+3.5	-2.7	-2.8
Iowa 6/	4,700	11,900	206,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Kans.	3,415	8,700	237,892	69.66	27.34	+2.8	+6.4	-.1	+8.4
Ky.	1,874	5,627	55,540	29.64	9.87	+14.0	+5.9	-8.4	-24.5
La.	8,352	9,228	436,118	52.22	47.26	+.7	+.2	+3.5	+3.6
Maine	3,835	13,302	202,067	52.69	15.19	+12.9	+22.5	+12.7	+24.7
Md.	7,705	8,912	576,860	74.87	64.73	+2.1	+3.5	+30.4	+32.3
Mass.	8,182	17,529	676,219	82.65	38.58	-4.1	+11.5	-7.1	+8.2
Mich.	22,499	67,347	1,787,860	79.46	26.55	+1.2	+5.1	-34.3	-41.3
Minn.	12,302	38,285	1,064,612	86.54	27.81	+5.8	+6.6	+1.4	+.5
Miss.	1,307	1,714	19,399	14.84	11.32	0	+.1	+9.2	+14.2
Mo.	10,410	14,502	685,241	65.83	47.25	+5.5	+2.4	+8.8	+5.8
Mont.	1,729	5,535	106,505	61.60	19.24	+3.7	+14.7	-37.7	-7.2
Nev.	344	701	21,187	61.59	30.22	-14.9	+.7	-10.6	-8.3
N. H.	1,218	4,501	84,734	69.57	18.83	+3.0	+4.4	+4.7	+6.4
N. J. 8/	12,107	40,557	1,518,090	125.39	37.43	-4.1	+2.4	-3.1	+3.1
N. Mex.	257	510	10,915	42.47	21.40	+3.4	-16.0	-57.4	-60.7
N. Y. 9/	52,115	110,801	4,563,614	87.57	41.19	+4.1	+8.8	+16.3	+27.6
N. C.	2,160	7,327	53,988	24.99	7.37	+.3	-5.4	+3.8	+7.5
N. Dak.	737	3,315	52,682	71.48	15.89	-1.6	+4.1	+16.2	+19.3
Ohio	28,989	91,925	1,961,369	67.66	21.34	-5.7	-1.3	-25.6	-24.4
Okla.	9,005	(7/)	112,456	12.49	---	---	+17.8	---	-.8
Oreg.	6,118	(7/)	383,518	62.69	---	---	+5.9	---	+16.0
Pa.	37,901	46,046	2,455,826	64.80	53.33	+1.1	-.1	-3.9	+4.8
P. R.	1,698	1,698	14,141	8.33	8.33	+52.7	+51.4	+42.7	+62.9
R. I.	3,173	7,376	193,441	60.96	26.23	-5.7	-4.6	+15.3	+16.2
S. C.	1,423	1,634	34,529	24.26	21.13	-6.9	+.9	-10.5	-27.3
S. Dak.	649	2,446	25,660	39.54	10.49	-14.1	-8.7	+19.7	+28.6
Tenn.	2,240	3,994	53,842	24.04	13.48	-1.0	+11.7	-32.1	+16.8
Tex. 10/ 11/	9,000	(7/)	256,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
Utah	2,128	6,378	161,897	76.08	25.38	-1.9	-1.0	+4.7	+9.0
Vt. 10/ 11/	1,400	(7/)	43,000	---	---	---	---	---	---
V. I.	193	200	7,050	36.53	35.25	+9.3	+9.4	+19.0	+37.3
Va.	3,139	8,678	152,713	48.65	17.60	+13.6	+7.8	-.8	+13.5
Wash.	10,155	16,217	700,847	69.01	43.22	-9.0	-4.0	+4.1	+13.8
W. Va.	1,693	2,790	61,816	36.51	22.16	+.6	+.7	+11.5	+18.4
Wis.	7,916	25,064	748,465	94.55	29.86	+1.6	+2.8	-18.0	-19.0
Wyo.	696	2,970	60,671	87.17	20.43	-8.6	-11.4	-1.7	-2.6

1/ All data subject to revision. 2/ Partly estimated; does not represent sum of State figures because totals exclude for New Jersey an estimated number of cases and persons receiving only medical care, hospitalization, and/or burial and payments for such services; recipient count also includes an estimate for States not reporting such data. Excludes Idaho, Indiana, and Nebraska; data not available. 3/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients; percentage change on fewer than 100 recipients. 4/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent. 5/ About 12 percent of this total is estimated. 6/ Partly estimated. 7/ Data not available. 8/ Includes an unknown number of cases and persons receiving only medical care, hospitalization, and/or burial, and total payments for such services. 9/ Includes an unknown number of cases and persons receiving only medical care. 10/ Estimated on basis of reports from sample of local jurisdiction. 11/ Data for February; March data not available.

Table 12. Amount of vendor payments for medical care for recipients of public assistance, by program and State, March 1965 1/

State	Old-age assistance	Medical assistance for the aged	Aid to the blind	Aid to the permanently and totally disabled	Aid to families with dependent children	General assistance 1/
Total	$38,145,447	$45,585,652	$1,110,636	$11,821,629	$13,799,377	$10,402,000
Ala.	1,293,659	85,199	4,674	70,911	547	---
Alaska 2/	48,765	(3/)	---	18,169	124	96,786
Ariz.	70,333	(3/)	---	---	---	---
Ark.	871,484	200,027	23,884	223,145	57,935	38,703
Calif.	3,808,695	8,430,714	250,073	1,315,989	1,514,252	142,282
Colo.	691,047	4/ 891,442	3,366	86,125	110,613	96,245
Conn.	140,804	4/ 1,276,620	13,004	278,441	386,666	---
Del.	28,290	10,737	1,964	---	---	---
Dist. of Col.	53,826	268,923	450	35,714	1,055	106
Fla. 2/	1,208,421	312,343	20,582	246,977	81,977	---
Ga.	1,019,936	(3/)	13,591	206,612	---	---
Guam	---	(5/)	---	---	---	---
Hawaii 2/	25,280	114,894	3,863	80,277	64,855	24,670
Idaho	86,059	415,705	85	24,239	---	---
Ill. 2/	3,279,132	609,976	103,236	1,365,742	2,159,158	1,079,719
Ind.	962,169	4,864	53,668	110,417	269,160	---
Iowa	1,035,237	578,343	11,139	---	184,074	6/ 311,000
Kans. 2/	614,341	4/ 441,493	10,980	142,651	282,021	168,111
Ky. 2/	755,227	377,302	19,571	156,112	213,538	---
La.	2,322,840	109,216	7,971	113,242	28,406	5,423
Maine 2/	321,078	131,334	3,234	44,284	26,390	92,809
Md. 2/	111,747	7/ 428,000	3,972	88,096	---	1,193
Mass.	1,147,079	4/ 5,353,510	24,630	1,103,967	570,672	278,674
Mich.	676,469	1,974,975	21,103	183,781	169,670	483,027
Minn.	1,082,639	4/ 2,596,777	47,403	49,727	532,006	449,428
Miss.	199,723	(3/)	4,499	---	---	---
Mo.	1,156,485	(3/)	---	77,583	59,416	21,674
Mont.	1,764	(3/)	421	192	---	399,517
Nebr.	663,108	93,133	36,964	142,595	52,694	---
Nev.	58,379	(3/)	3,112	(3/)	11,012	167,355
N. H.	97,166	84,609	5,430	22,771	33,263	---
N. J.	329,042	4/ 1,278,910	11,402	262,066	293,139	369,942
N. Mex. 2/	197,496	(3/)	6,768	75,582	103,992	5,500
N. Y. 2/	1,297,305	4/10,878,296	104,456	2,083,947	3,264,725	261,619
N. C.	322,332	234,610	22,675	295,371	230,636	103,216
N. Dak. 2/	157,947	4/ 284,132	1,164	100,609	61,366	21,625
Ohio	1,753,516	(3/)	57,043	358,244	600,727	1,224,057
Okla. 2/	1,613,618	167,571	31,867	277,180	18,477	---
Oreg.	139,808	633,009	5,420	176,060	108,817	78,267
Pa.	798,581	3,040,185	76,211	398,306	891,236	1,294,310
P. R. 2/	31,241	129,507	---	---	---	---
R. I. 2/	100,340	497,447	1,768	54,786	127,683	79,334
S. C.	386,484	267,223	18,806	94,889	35,206	14,606
S. Dak.	105,975	26,760	---	---	---	121,951
Tenn.	550,848	289,005	2,955	27,850	46,311	---
Tex.	2,820,755	(3/)	---	---	---	---
Utah	56,641	231,224	2,154	149,246	71,139	1,138
Vt. 2/	208,611	40,880	1,597	24,011	---	---
V. I.	1,308	2,718	4	75	152	180
Va.	242,656	196,364	12,583	94,962	54,215	27,672
Wash.	807,174	1,369,708	17,952	605,991	451,395	189,875
W. Va.	152,328	407,665	4,746	63,173	347,636	15,328
Wis.	2,197,211	797,609	37,221	482,832	269,527	317,112
Wyo.	43,048	22,693	975	8,690	13,444	44,039

1/ Data incomplete. Some States do not report these data and for some the data represent only partial reporting. The total includes an estimated amount for these States. 2/ Except for aid to families with dependent children and general assistance, data represent payments for recipients of the specified type of assistance under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ No program in operation. 4/ Includes money payments not subject to Federal participation as follows: $25,813 in Colorado, $26 in Connecticut, $11,055 in Kansas, $96,368 in Massachusetts, $35,603 in Minnesota, $8,035 in New Jersey, $51,904 in New York, and $2,047 in North Dakota. 5/ Program in operation but no payments made in March. 6/ Partly estimated. 7/ Estimated.

Table 13. Average payment per recipient for all assistance, for money payments, and for vendor payments for medical care, by program and State, March 1965 1/

State	Old-age assistance				Aid to the blind			Aid to the permanently and totally disabled			Aid to families with dependent children (per recipient)		
	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	Medical assistance for the aged	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care	All assistance	Money payments to recipients	Vendor payments for medical care
Total.....	$80.18	$62.45	$17.73	$184.66	$87.04	$75.49	$11.55	$84.00	$62.12	$21.88	$34.34	$31.27	$3.07
Ala.....	69.01	57.44	11.58	317.91	68.54	66.00	2.54	46.55	41.78	4.78	11.81	11.80	.01
Alaska 2/.....	105.05	69.73	35.31	(3/)	82.42	82.42	---	155.79	68.44	87.35	34.93	34.91	.03
Ariz.....	63.50	58.17	5.33	(3/)	71.40	71.40	---	67.25	67.25	---	28.43	28.43	---
Ark.....	65.69	50.94	14.74	64.42	72.61	60.18	12.43	62.06	38.68	23.38	17.17	15.29	1.87
Calif.....	112.01	98.07	13.94	278.09	139.77	119.77	20.01	118.76	99.12	19.64	44.65	42.04	2.62
Colo.....	96.30	80.64	15.66	(4/)	84.87	71.40	13.46	77.09	62.87	14.23	37.56	34.99	2.57
Conn.....	82.14	61.96	20.19	184.19	107.31	65.08	42.22	77.52	42.91	34.61	46.40	40.04	6.36
Delaware.....	72.66	52.75	19.91	143.16	89.38	82.96	6.42	76.86	76.86	---	28.22	28.22	---
Dist. of Col.....	86.41	63.81	22.60	309.11	75.33	73.11	2.22	82.39	71.51	10.89	32.73	32.68	.05
Fla. 2/.....	65.93	49.47	16.46	325.36	67.56	59.62	7.94	70.50	56.32	14.18	16.05	15.29	.77
Ga.....	58.31	47.22	11.09	(3/)	60.08	55.82	4.26	62.02	54.35	7.66	22.13	22.13	---
Guam.....	33.58	33.58	---	(5/)	(6/)	(6/)	---	(6/)	(6/)	---	15.89	15.89	---
Hawaii 2/.....	81.44	60.11	21.33	231.64	121.42	70.59	50.83	126.58	51.98	74.61	35.32	30.74	4.58
Idaho.....	80.61	60.88	19.74	160.88	75.28	74.65	.63	56.75	48.84	7.91	38.70	38.70	---
Ill. 2/.....	105.92	47.27	58.65	398.94	106.24	64.05	42.19	114.76	68.35	46.40	47.54	39.51	8.03
Ind.....	86.82	44.52	42.30	(6/)	92.37	62.22	30.15	122.43	48.62	73.81	29.61	24.11	5.50
Iowa.....	93.55	55.59	37.96	71.22	100.72	91.03	9.69	82.41	82.41	---	38.99	34.85	4.14
Kans. 2/.....	97.97	69.87	28.10	152.50	98.84	77.23	21.61	117.44	89.09	28.35	40.21	32.89	7.32
Ky. 2/.....	62.85	49.96	12.89	39.07	70.62	62.78	7.84	76.94	62.68	14.26	24.62	22.02	2.60
La.....	84.96	67.20	17.75	193.99	81.36	78.48	2.88	58.69	52.87	5.81	23.19	22.93	.27
Maine 2/.....	82.47	52.98	29.50	256.01	82.98	72.48	10.50	89.41	69.91	19.50	28.86	27.49	1.37
Md. 2/.....	73.53	62.28	11.25	(4/)	81.44	71.20	10.24	79.91	68.60	11.31	33.61	33.61	---
Mass.....	91.67	69.86	21.81	181.41	141.79	130.99	10.80	152.72	66.84	85.89	48.54	42.66	5.88
Mich.....	94.07	80.20	13.87	348.75	92.62	79.93	12.69	103.36	85.89	17.47	35.37	34.35	1.01
Minn.....	86.91	53.12	33.79	195.25	113.90	68.32	45.58	61.53	48.49	13.04	53.53	43.22	10.31
Miss.....	39.83	37.09	2.73	(3/)	45.18	43.46	1.71	43.37	43.37	---	9.94	9.94	---
Mo.....	69.51	58.20	11.31	(3/)	75.00	75.00	---	72.55	67.44	5.11	24.38	23.83	.55
Mont.....	72.22	71.89	.34	(3/)	86.25	84.57	1.68	79.31	79.17	.14	36.28	36.28	---
Nebr.....	93.43	40.15	53.27	348.81	113.32	54.74	58.58	99.88	46.89	52.99	31.20	28.02	3.17
Nev.....	88.30	66.12	22.18	(3/)	114.12	94.55	19.57	(3/)	(3/)	(3/)	31.02	28.99	2.03
N. H.....	101.30	79.25	22.05	50.60	107.58	87.09	20.49	115.77	79.22	36.55	44.36	37.24	7.12
N. J.....	86.24	62.43	23.81	240.94	88.20	75.91	12.29	99.04	69.00	30.05	49.75	47.00	2.75
N. Mex. 2/.....	77.71	58.56	19.15	(3/)	94.06	74.44	19.62	90.17	70.32	19.85	33.04	29.54	3.50
N. Y. 2/.....	97.13	74.21	22.92	306.91	119.79	86.27	33.52	132.45	73.58	58.86	48.85	42.88	5.98
N. C.....	60.37	52.82	7.55	296.60	68.43	63.87	4.56	72.40	59.24	13.16	24.71	22.69	2.03
N. Dak. 2/.....	96.64	66.03	30.62	217.39	84.00	69.63	14.37	125.05	64.88	60.17	45.24	37.67	7.57
Ohio.....	86.81	65.53	21.28	(3/)	79.28	63.48	15.79	83.48	64.88	18.60	31.71	28.69	3.02
Okla. 2/.....	96.20	76.70	19.50	147.64	122.34	102.87	19.47	111.87	92.63	19.24	32.46	32.21	.25
Oreg.....	71.42	57.83	13.58	149.82	89.40	77.70	11.71	68.19	46.56	21.63	39.14	35.98	3.15
Pa.....	80.63	63.33	17.30	261.61	75.93	71.59	4.34	76.53	57.35	19.18	31.48	28.60	2.88
P. R. 2/.....	9.55	8.52	1.03	27.75	8.50	8.50	---	8.67	8.67	---	4.13	4.13	---
R. I. 2/.....	95.14	78.02	17.12	126.77	97.03	79.52	17.50	94.82	75.59	19.23	41.05	35.88	5.17
S. C.....	55.11	39.96	15.15	189.92	64.64	54.50	10.14	55.87	45.24	10.63	16.29	15.12	1.18
S. Dak.....	85.46	70.46	15.00	47.45	71.42	71.42	---	69.83	69.83	---	31.56	31.56	---
Tenn.....	57.44	45.12	12.32	35.83	55.47	54.07	1.40	54.42	52.32	2.10	22.55	21.94	.60
Tex.....	69.85	57.60	12.25	(3/)	69.56	69.56	---	57.09	57.09	---	18.66	18.66	---
Utah.....	69.46	57.63	11.83	101.73	69.16	56.10	13.05	69.03	39.01	30.02	31.37	28.37	3.00
Vt. 2/.....	85.49	47.13	38.36	257.11	73.35	60.15	13.20	79.37	59.90	19.47	29.76	29.76	---
V. I.....	40.61	37.61	3.00	40.57	(6/)	(6/)	(6/)	39.56	38.56	1.00	18.74	18.61	.13
Va.....	64.11	45.69	18.42	69.93	69.89	58.91	10.98	69.58	55.81	13.77	24.97	23.82	1.15
Wash.....	85.45	60.75	24.70	134.51	93.48	67.04	26.44	64.39	31.03	33.36	35.88	30.33	5.55
W. Va.....	49.98	39.11	10.87	31.87	48.04	42.05	5.99	47.39	37.30	10.09	26.11	23.16	2.95
Wis.....	108.58	31.14	77.44	146.27	96.65	50.01	46.64	124.11	40.83	83.28	47.36	41.34	6.02
Wyo.....	86.52	68.81	17.71	(6/)	91.21	74.11	17.11	82.17	69.14	13.03	39.99	36.35	3.64

1/ Averages based on cases receiving money payments, vendor payments for medical care, or both. Money payments may also include small amounts for assistance in kind and vendor payments for other than medical care. Averages for general assistance not computed because of difference among States in policy or practice regarding use of general assistance funds to pay medical bills for recipients of the special types of public assistance. 2/ Except for aid to families with dependent children, data for each program represent average payments for recipients of the specified type of assistance under program for aid to the aged, blind, or disabled or for such aid and medical assistance for the aged. 3/ No program in operation. 4/ Estimated. 5/ Program in operation but no payments made in March 1965. 6/ Average payment not computed on base of fewer than 50 recipients.

Old-age, survivors, and disability insurance benefits, summary data, March 1965

CURRENT MONTH DATA

Type of benefit	Benefits awarded in month		Benefits awarded in current-payment status, end of month			Amount of benefits paid 1/ in month (in thousands)
	Number	Average amount	Number	Monthly rate (in thousands)	Average amount	
Total, OASI and DI	322,629	---	---	---	---	$1,408,393
Total, OASI	287,795	---	---	---	---	1,292,520
Monthly benefits, OASI and DI	224,255	---	19,996,422	$1,343,911	---	1,388,199
Monthly benefits, OASI	189,421	---	18,393,092	1,240,150	---	1,272,327
Monthly benefits, DI	34,834	---	1,603,330	103,761	---	115,873
Old-age (retired-worker)	94,483	$81.06	10,772,480	838,940	$77.88	854,026
Disability (disabled-worker)	18,021	93.20	916,775	83,537	91.12	92,513
Wife's or husband's (OASI and DI)	31,780	39.19	2,788,424	111,056	39.83	115,742
Wife's or husband's (OASI)	26,892	40.04	2,604,993	105,143	40.36	108,611
Wife's or husband's (DI)	4,888	34.53	183,431	5,913	32.24	7,131
Widow's or widower's	25,522	73.69	2,191,650	149,261	68.10	154,884
Parent's	263	79.93	36,001	2,528	70.21	2,738
Child's (OASI and DI)	45,161	---	2,819,726	130,643	---	138,361
Child's (OASI--total)	33,236	---	2,316,602	116,332	---	122,132
Child's (OASI--life) 2/	9,081	28.58	427,984	12,122	28.32	12,702
Child's (OASI--survivor) 2/	24,155	53.40	1,888,618	104,210	55.18	109,430
Child's (DI)	11,925	27.96	503,124	14,311	28.44	16,229
Mother's	9,025	61.63	471,366	27,945	59.29	29,936
Lump-sum death payments	98,374	3/216.81	---	---	---	20,193

COMPARATIVE DATA

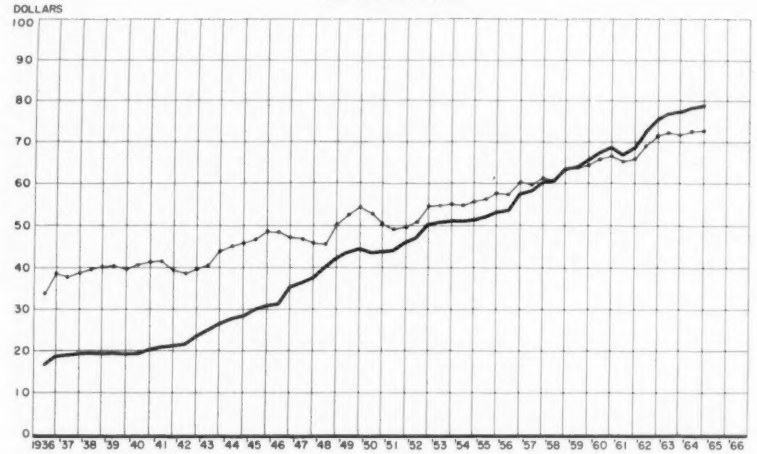
Item	March 1965	February 1965	March 1964
Number of benefits in current-payment status, end of month:			
Total, OASI and DI	19,996,422	19,929,858	19,303,647
Total, OASI	18,393,092	18,338,980	17,824,823
Total, DI	1,603,330	1,590,878	1,478,824
Amount of benefits paid (in thousands):			
Total, OASI and DI	$1,408,393	$1,396,633	$1,348,210
Total, OASI	1,292,520	1,274,543	1,241,905
Total, DI	115,873	122,090	106,304
Number of old-age (retired-worker) benefits:			
Awarded	94,483	79,744	105,239
In current-payment status, end of month	10,772,480	10,736,956	10,408,904
Average old-age (retired-worker) benefit:			
Awarded	$81.06	$83.03	$80.64
In current-payment status, end of month	77.88	77.81	77.22
Number of disability insurance (disabled-worker) benefits:			
Awarded	18,021	25,261	17,865
In current-payment status, end of month	916,775	909,941	841,723
Average disability insurance (disabled-worker) benefit:			
Awarded	$93.20	$92.53	$95.26
In current-payment status, end of month	91.12	91.11	90.71
Number of persons aged 62 and over receiving monthly benefits, end of month (OASI and DI) 4/	15,661,000	15,611,000	15,111,000
Number of persons aged 65 and over receiving monthly benefits, end of month (OASI and DI) 4/	13,770,000	13,732,000	13,294,000
Assets of trust funds, end of month (in millions):			
OASI	$18,907	$18,948	$18,437
DI	1,959	1,972	2,187

1/ Exceeds monthly amount of benefits in current-payment status because initial payments include amounts payable for prior months. Distribution by type of monthly benefit estimated.
2/ Distribution by type of claim for OASI child's benefits estimated.
3/ Average lump-sum per worker; 93,137 deceased workers represented in the current month's lump-sum awards.
4/ Numbers estimated to the nearest thousand.

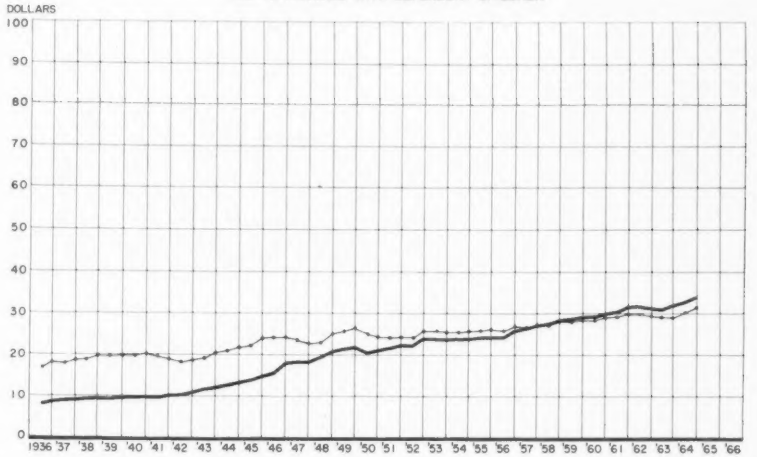
Source: Division of the Actuary, Social Security Administration.

AVERAGE MONTHLY PUBLIC ASSISTANCE PAYMENT PER RECIPIENT IN ACTUAL AND ADJUSTED DOLLARS BY PROGRAM, JUNE AND DECEMBER OF EACH YEAR, 1936 TO DATE

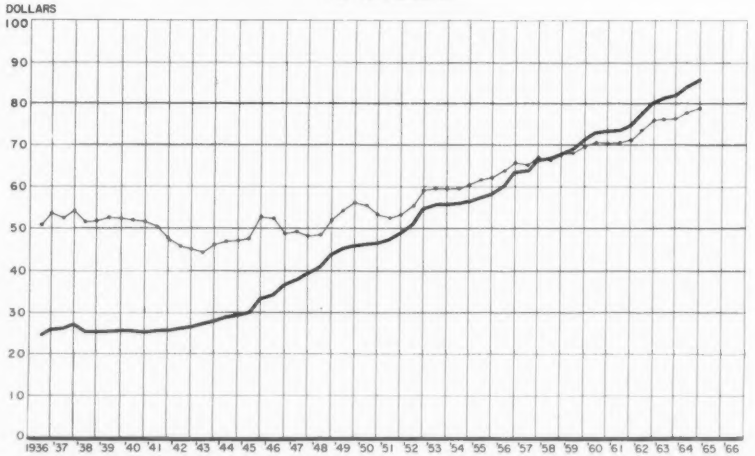
OLD-AGE ASSISTANCE



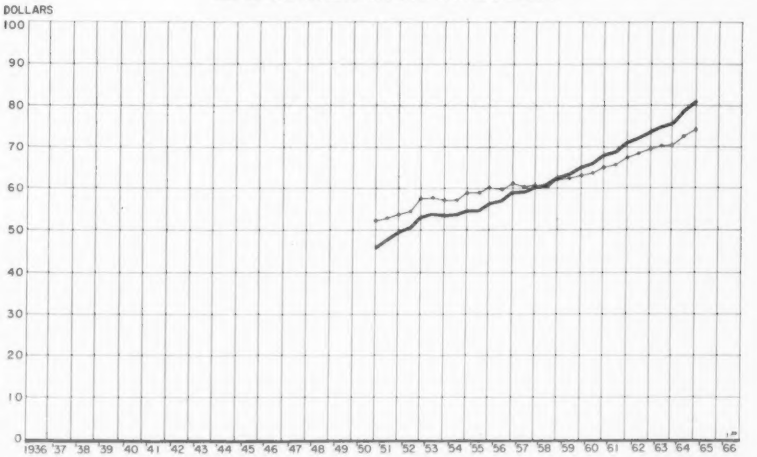
AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN



AID TO THE BLIND



AID TO THE PERMANENTLY AND TOTALLY DISABLED



ACTUAL DOLLARS.

ADJUSTED DOLLARS, 1957-1959=100 (DOLLAR AMOUNTS ADJUSTED TO REPRESENT ACTUAL PURCHASING POWER IN TERMS OF AVERAGE VALUE OF DOLLAR DURING THE PERIOD 1957-1959 BASED ON THE CONSUMERS' PRICE INDEX FOR MODERATE-INCOME FAMILIES IN LARGE CITIES MAINTAINED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS)

ROOM USE ONLY

DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Welfare Administration
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20201

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

POSTAGE AND FEES PAID
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF H. E. W.

DOCUMENTS
JUL 21 1965
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

JUNE
1965
Vol 3-No6

UNE
965
3-No6

BAN REFUGEE PROGRAM STAFF: CHILDREN'S BUREAU PUBLICATION